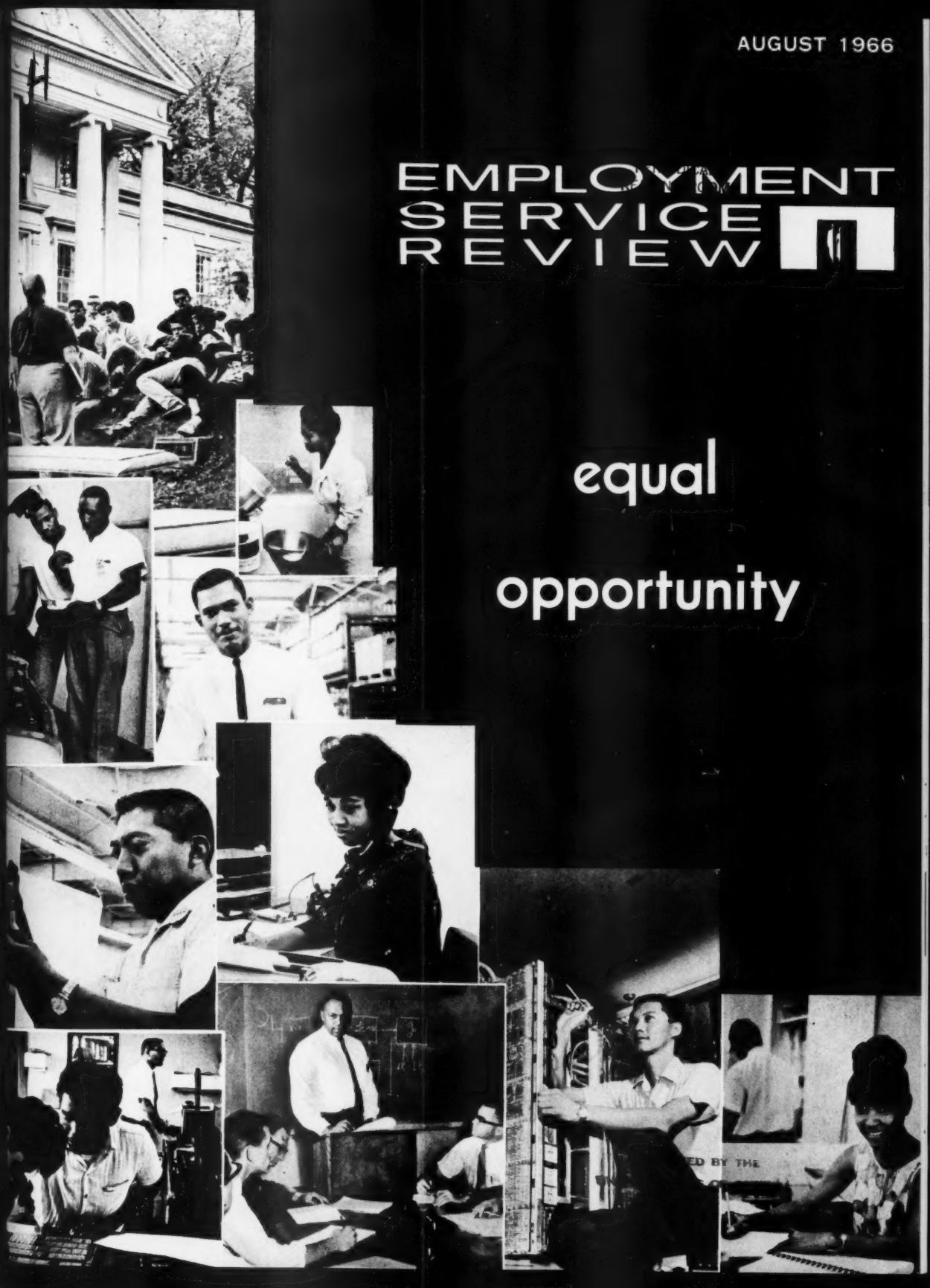
AUGUST 1966

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

equal opportunity



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W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Administrator

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

ELSIE SOLTAR DORMAN, Editor

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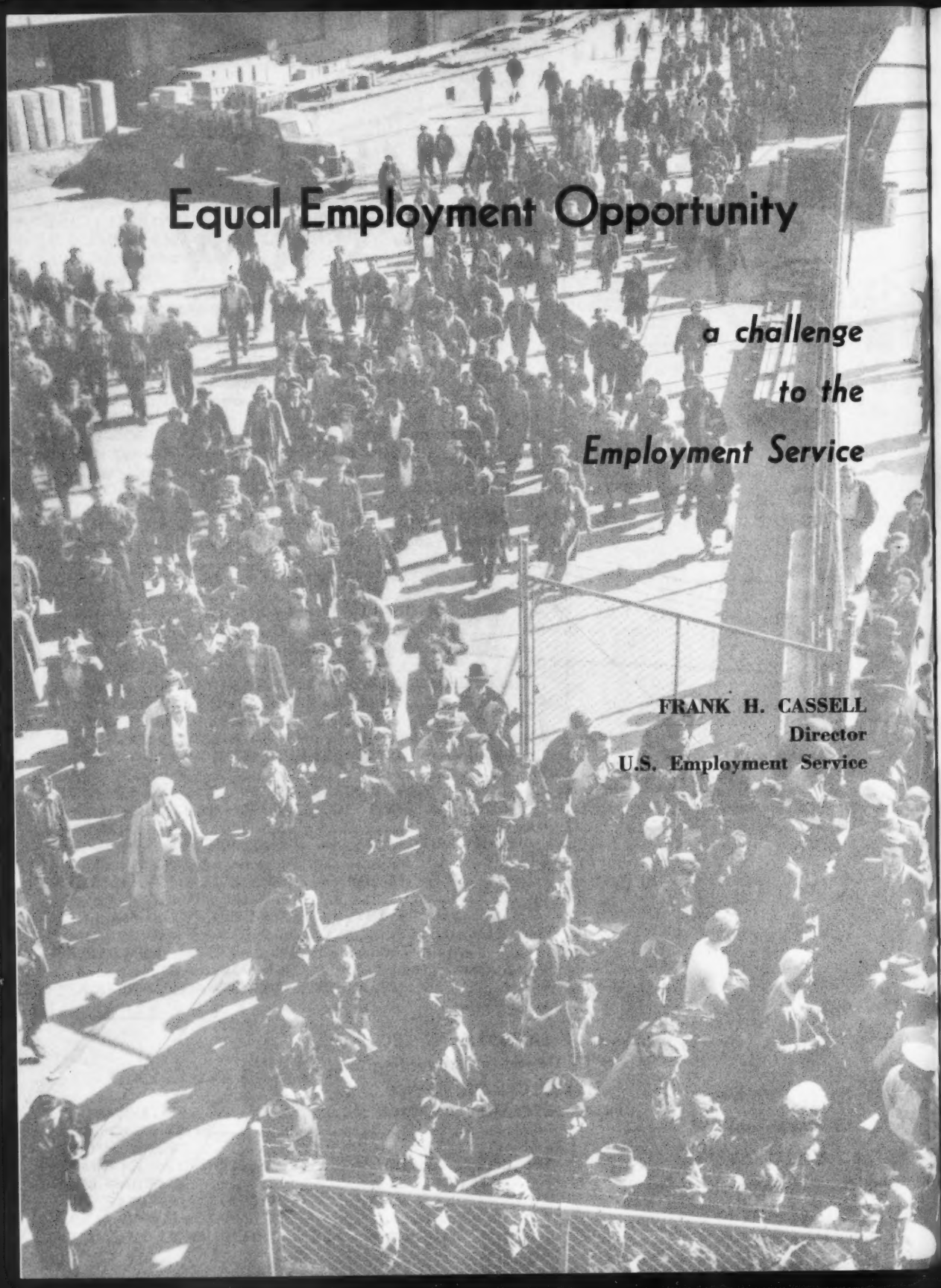
BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
Robert C. Goodwin, Administrator
U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
FRANK H. CASSELL, DIRECTOR



Equal Employment Opportunity

a challenge to the Employment Service

FRANK H. CASSELL
Director
U.S. Employment Service

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This issue of the EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW is devoted to the subject of equal employment opportunity. It is not designed to say that we have solved the problems of minority groups or that we are doing a fine job. It does include some success stories, about which we are all pleased, but it includes the very clear implication that we have much hard work to do before equal employment is a reality for all citizens.

Since 1947, nondiscrimination in applicant services has been the established policy of the Employment Service. That policy states that the Employment Service will promote employment opportunity for all job applicants without regard to race, color, creed, or national origin, except when citizenship is required by law. One year following the effective date of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it is clear that the meaning of that policy must be redefined.

The Employment Service is focusing strong attention on the needs and problems of minority group workers whose skills have become obsolete or who have not had an opportunity to prepare for today's highly competitive and technologically advancing job market.

How well we perform this very important task depends upon our determination to see nondiscriminatory and effective policies followed in every part of the Federal-State Employment Service. Despite the early adoption of these policies in Employment Service operations, and the increase in State fair employment practice legislation since 1945, millions of minority group Americans continue to be denied an opportunity to aspire for anything but traditional, low-skill and low-paying jobs, or careers as teachers, doctors, ministers, and lawyers. The result has been a general unpreparedness of many minority group Americans to take advantage of opportunities in occupations which are now being made available to them. During the last decade, members of minority groups have made significant inroads into occupations which were not formerly available to them. Nevertheless, nonwhites in disproportionate numbers continue to work at the less skilled blue-collar and service occupations with low educational requirements and high unemployment rates.

A recent study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that if the rate of change now taking place in the occupational structure of the American economy continues, the occupations in which minorities are largely concentrated will grow at a slower rate than other occupations. The report concludes that ". . . even if nonwhites should continue to increase their share of jobs in the higher skilled occupations at the same rate as in recent years, the present unemployment gap between nonwhite and white workers would not be narrowed appreciably. Therefore, if nonwhite workers are to continue to improve their employment situation in the future, they will have to gain a larger proportion of the white-collar and skilled occupations even faster than heretofore."

An example of this is the fact that despite a general improvement in nonwhite employment during the last decade, the unemployment rate among nonwhites remains stubbornly twice that of whites.

The Employment Service can assist minority groups in gaining a fuller share of the prosperity of this Nation depending upon how the term "equal employment opportunity" is interpreted and applied. If the term is defined as meaning equal consideration for job opportunities without regard for the generations of deprivation and denial of the opportunity to prepare for equal consideration, then our assistance to such groups will assuredly be token and our mandate to assist applicants on a nondiscriminatory basis would be meaningless.

Simply stated, the term means making equal consideration for job opportunities a reality for all groups who in the past have not had an opportunity to be considered. It means more than mere conformity to the letter of the law, for I can think of no more certain means of preventing the intent of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 from becoming a reality. It must be clear to all of us that the intent of the Act is not to foster the status quo but rather to insure that all individuals, employment agencies, labor organizations, and employers take all steps which are necessary to eliminate both overt and covert discrimination in employment. To assume otherwise is to ignore the true portent of the social revolution to which the passage of the Act responds.

In his address before the May convocation of the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Secretary

Median Yearly Income of Males 14 Years Old and Over, by Color and Years of School Completed, 1958 and 1963

Years of school completed	Total		Nonwhite		White		Percent change 1958 to 1963			Nonwhite as a percent of white	
	1958	1963	1958	1963	1958	1963	Total	Nonwhite	White	1958	1963
Elementary:											
Less than 8 years	$1,905	$2,194	$1,447	$1,731	$2,076	$2,408	15	20	16	70	72
8 years	3,214	3,610	2,328	2,740	3,276	3,749	12	18	14	71	73
High school:											
1 to 3 years	3,594	3,902	2,224	2,459	3,774	4,150	9	11	10	59	59
4 years	4,548	5,482	2,994	3,821	4,654	5,600	21	28	20	64	68
College: 1 year or more	5,702	6,674	3,679	4,070	5,810	6,829	17	11	18	63	60

NOTE.—All income data are expressed in current dollars.

Source: Data are from *Current Population Reports, Consumer Income*, "Income of Families and Persons in the United States: 1958," series P–60, No. 33, table 26, and *Current Population Reports, Consumer Income*, "Income of Families and Persons in the United States: 1963," series P–60, No. 43, table 21 (U.S. Bureau of the Census).

of Labor W. Willard Wirtz stated. ". . . the fact is that even if there were full enforcement and acceptance of every present and proposed statutory prohibition of employment discrimination . . . there could remain such frustration of the present employment expectations of minority groups that the whole civil rights revolution would become a dangerously bitter disillusionment to a dangerously large number of people for a dangerously long time." He was referring to the danger which is inherent in the belief that mere conformance to the letter of the law justifies not taking appropriate steps to make the intent of the law a reality. The challenge of the Employment Service in providing nondiscriminatory services to minority groups is to develop creative ways not only to assist them in upgrading their skills but also to combat discrimination in the job market.

What is needed is an affirmative and an aggressive approach. We must determine what is not being done, how to do better the things we are already doing, and look for new or additional means for carrying out our responsibilities in this area.

Even now the Employment Service is embarked on studies to devise tests which do not "screen out," but "screen in," disadvantaged persons. We are looking for better ways to recruit and select minority group persons for training and employment opportunities. In this connection, we are applying to our recruitment and selection efforts the guidelines for testing and selecting minority job applicants which were prepared by the California Technical Advisory Committee on Testing. The five guidelines are of particular importance to the Employment Service:

1. Accurately define job duties and requirements.
2. Screen applicants only on factors related to job requirements.
3. Use tests appropriately and only when they relate to performance.
4. Consider all relevant factors in final selection.
5. Recognize the special problems of minority applicants.

Our number one imperative as an equal employment opportunity agency is to insure that ES services are geared to the needs of each applicant. This is especially true of minority and other disadvantaged workers. Our efforts in behalf of minority groups must, therefore, be in equitable balance with their needs as a group, particularly in training programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act, and in referrals to Job Corps, NYC, and other work-training projects.

In the planning of training courses, we need to give special attention to the recruitment of minority group persons for training in occupations for which they have had little opportunity to train in the past.

There is something wrong with our training and recruitment efforts if, in a city with 40-percent minority population referrals of minority group persons to training opportunities are substantially and consistently less than 40 percent. If the Employment Service is to make a significant contribution in assisting minorities to qualify for better jobs, it will have to begin by increasing the participation of minority groups in all types of remedial and upgrading programs.

To insure such participation, we shall have to expand our cooperative efforts with other public and private resources in the community in order that our programs can be brought to the attention of those who need them most. Our contacts with people and community organizations should be used for reaching out into the minority community and bringing opportunity and knowledge about jobs and the job market to the grass roots level. Moreover, the persons and the organizations with whom we cooperate for this purpose also can be used as a valuable source of information on the training needs, how to reach the hard-core unemployed, and the effect or appraisal of our efforts in the community.

The Human Resources Development projects in the major cities and the other cooperative programs of the

Employment Service and community organizations represent the type of rethinking which needs to be done if we mean to do an effective job of assuring equal opportunity for minority groups.

We are beginning to recognize that the job which needs to be done in behalf of minority groups cannot be done without the assistance of others. We must look for persons or organizations with more experience, more know-how, and better rapport with the groups we are attempting to help, and we must draw upon their expertise as another way of improving our own services. We must also encourage these individuals and organizations to test our ideas, our concepts, and our services as a means of learning better ways for doing our job.

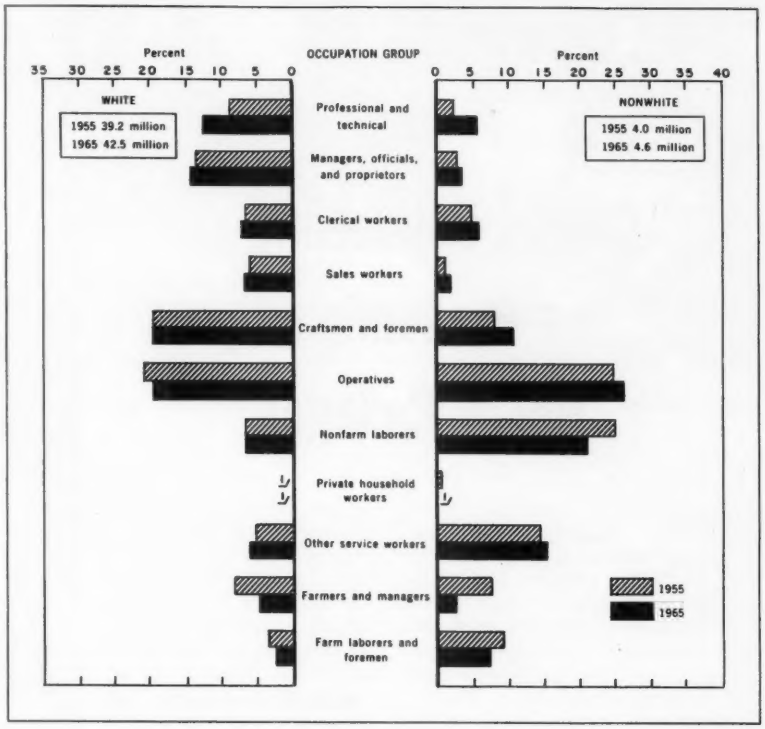
Another very important area of concern to us as an equal employment opportunity agency is our promotional efforts with employers. We must deal with discrimination in employment openly and honestly. It should be made quite clear to every employer using our services that under no circumstances will we consider an applicant's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in referring workers, except when such consideration is required by law or when it constitutes a bona fide occupational qualification. In addition, we must remain mindful of our legal responsibilities under title VI of the Civil Rights Act, which outlaws any form of discrimination in federally assisted programs, and title VII, which specifically prohibits discrimination in employment agency functions and operations.

To insure that we are in full compliance with both of these titles, we must tactfully, but firmly, address the problem of discrimination with employers whose hiring policies or practices will not permit us to provide applicants of all groups with the same quality of service. I can think of no greater disservice to minority groups than to encourage them to avail themselves of a service we are not prepared to provide.

There are many practical problems

(*Continued on page 17*)

Percent Distribution of Employed Men, by Occupation Group and Color, 1955 and 1965



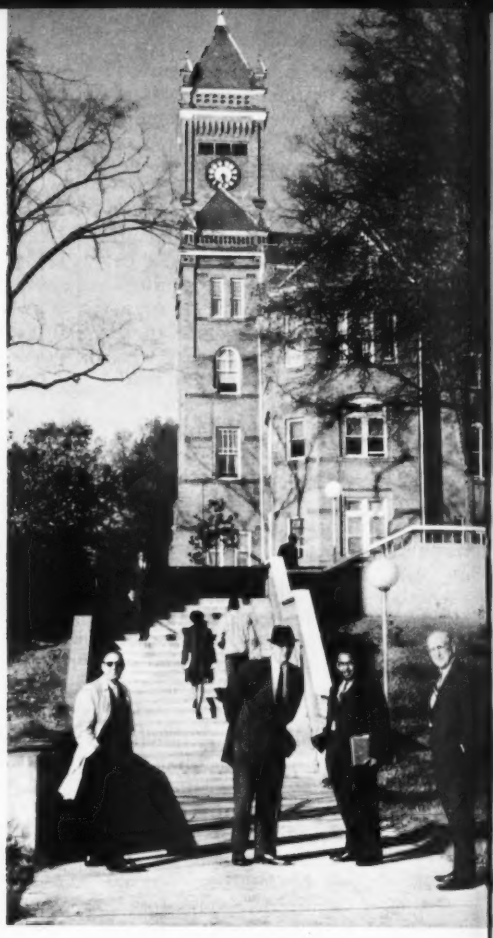
[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Employed Men by Color and Major Occupation Group in 1960 and 1965

Occupation	White		Nonwhite	
	1960	1965	1960	1965
Total employed (thousands)	40,265	42,466	4,220	4,568
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical	11.4	12.6	3.8	5.6
Clerical workers	7.2	7.1	5.8	5.7
Managerial and sales	21.0	20.8	4.7	5.2
Craftsmen and foremen	19.7	19.9	9.5	10.9
Operatives (semiskilled)	19.0	19.8	24.2	26.1
Nonfarm laborers	6.5	6.5	22.6	21.1
Service workers	5.7	6.1	15.2	15.5
Farmworkers	9.4	7.1	14.3	9.9

Placement and Career Counseling at Predominantly Negro Colleges

ANDRÉ G. BEAUMONT



Members of the College Placement Service visiting team arrive at the Johnson C. Smith University in Charlotte, N.C.

There are approximately 185,000 Negro college students in the United States. Of these, over 110,000, nearly 60 percent, attend the more than 100 predominantly Negro colleges. These colleges represent a spectrum of American higher educational institutions—from junior colleges to graduate schools, accredited and nonaccredited, State-supported and privately supported. They are located from Pennsylvania and Ohio southward to the Gulf States, and westward to Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas.

Most of these institutions originated after the Civil War and were concerned with educating the newly freed slaves. Gradually, they evolved from elementary schools to high schools and eventually into colleges. Some became liberal arts colleges and concentrated on a "classical" education; others specialized in education for careers and stressed teacher education, theology, prelaw, and premedical training; still others specialized in the development of "practical" skills and concentrated on training for trades.

André G. Beaumont is Director, Placement-Education Services, College Placement Services, Inc., Bethlehem, Pa.

It would be incorrect to assume that the May 1954 Supreme Court decision ending segregation in the field of education sounded the death knell of these institutions. On the contrary, a rebirth of these colleges has been taking place in recent years. Enrollments have been increasing sharply, contributions of private and public funds have brought about a wave of new construction, curricula are being reviewed and revised, and most of the colleges are in the process of racially integrating their student bodies. In fact, a few of the colleges can no longer be described as "predominantly Negro" since they have so integrated their student bodies that they are now "predominantly Caucasian" in enrollment.

The CPS visiting team meets with Joseph Gaston, Dean of Students at Johnson C. Smith University.

Counseling Is Changing

The counseling and placement functions at the predominantly Negro colleges are also undergoing an evolutionary process.

Because of the limited career choice formerly available to graduates of these colleges, the career counseling and placement functions were neglected. Most of the successful graduates of the Negro colleges were restricted to preparing for and entering "traditional careers" in the fields of education, theology, medicine, or law. A few of the graduates deviated from this pattern and entered business—either local mercantile enterprises, or the large Negro corporations in the insurance and banking business. The less successful graduates became underemployed in clerical or menial positions.

This article will not discuss the many factors that have brought about a dramatic change in the career outlook for the Negro college graduate. What is pertinent is that this change has come about so quickly that the career counseling and placement function at most of the Negro colleges has not had time to develop sufficiently to provide the services needed by the students, faculty members, and alumni.

Generally, at the typical Negro college, the placement officer wears many hats. His duties, in addition to placement, may include at least two of the following: Dean of Students, Director of Financial Aid, Admissions Officer, Alumni Secretary, Peace Corps Liaison Officer, Director of the Student Union, Director of the YMCA Program, Director of Development, Director of Public Relations, etc. In such situations, placement becomes another chore that competes for the limited time of a harassed individual. These circumstances exist at a majority of the colleges, although a few of the Negro colleges have recently established full-time placement offices.

In 1964, the College Placement Council felt that a program of assistance to the Negro colleges in the fields of career counseling and placement would be particularly appropriate in view of their state of development and the critical needs of our country for college trained persons. A proposal was made to the Ford Foundation and, in April 1965, the Foundation accepted the proposal and granted $310,000 on a 3-year basis to College Placement Service, Inc. (CPS), a separate nonprofit corporation which was formed by the Council to accept tax deductible gifts.

CPS's services, available at no cost, are given only after a request for assistance is received from the president of a college. Its efforts are directed to accredited colleges with 4-year degree granting programs.

The primary means of assistance is through the work of visitation teams. The teams are composed of known specialists in career counseling, placement, and employment, and are drawn from colleges, universities, businesses, industrial firms, and government agencies throughout the United States.

After a preliminary visit by a CPS staff member, a team is assigned to a college and arranges a 3- to 4-day campus visit, scheduling its work like an accreditation team. The team holds meetings with the president, administrative officers, placement officer, faculty members, and students of the institution. The meetings serve three purposes:

1. To acquaint the team members with the college's educational philosophy and practices, especially emphasizing its approach to career counseling and placement.

2. To acquaint the college's administrators, faculty members, and students with the new career outlook for their graduates and how each group can best adapt its efforts to enable the college community to adjust to the new circumstances. Emphasis is also placed on the role of the placement office as a communications link between the world of work and the college's faculty, students, and alumni; a role that results not only in the communication of em-

Benjamin E. Mays, President, Morehouse College, with Raymond H. Stockard, University of Rhode Island; Robert W. Brockbank, Mobil Oil Co.; and André G. Beaumont, College Placement Services, Inc.

ployment information, but also information about opportunities for graduate school fellowships, faculty internships, student summer internships, gifts of surplus equipment, and outright grants from employer organizations.

3. To identify and describe the total concept of college placement. This is defined as a process that begins early in the student's college life, to help him determine how he may earn his living after college. It is not a narrowing procedure, but rather a broadening, exploring, educational experience upon which an intelligent vocational choice or a decision for graduate education can eventually be based. It is carried out by individual counseling, group meetings, and orientation programs conducted by the placement staff in conjunction with the college's faculty and alumni cooperating with employers and various community, educational, and professional organizations.

After the visit, the team prepares a detailed report of its findings and proposes a recommended program of career counseling and placement for the college. The program presents long-range objectives, standards of performance and staffing, recommended organization, procedures, and activities, and touches upon any matter which the team may feel is appropriate to the college's career planning and placement program. All recommendations are compatible with the college's educational philosophy, financial capabilities, physical plant, and plans for future development.

Once a team report is submitted to a college, CPS does not relinquish contact with that organization. The chairman of the team usually goes to the college to present the final report and establishes a mechanism for regular followup visits to assist the college in implementing the recommendations.

A frequent limitation on a college's ability to carry out recommendations is finding sufficient funds. CPS, through its contact with foundations and industry, has already obtained funds for some of the colleges to establish placement operations and seeks additional grants in cooperation with each institution's development officer. CPS itself is not a granting agency at the present time; its main funding activity has been obtaining direct grants for specific colleges to implement CPS recommendations. The response from foundations and industry has been most encouraging.

Original plans called for CPS to work with 20 or 30 predominantly Negro colleges during its 3-year grant from the Ford Foundation. However, since operations began in October 1965, CPS advisory teams have already visited 19 predominantly Negro colleges and CPS staff members have made exploratory visits to an additional 12 colleges.

In addition to training visitation team personnel and arranging for team visits, CPS has been directing the professional training of placement staff members at the colleges visited. This includes on-the-job training at other established placement offices, formal university training, and training in workshops sponsored by the regional college placement associations.

At this early stage of the CPS program, the colleges are just beginning to react and implement recommendations made to them by visiting teams. It is thus expected that the program's first impact on students and placements will be felt during the 1966–67 academic year.

However, advisory teams and CPS staff members have developed certain general observations that are helpful to future teams and add some dimension to the efforts of persons working with the predominantly Negro colleges in placement and counseling.

One problem observed at most of the Negro colleges concerns a continuing doubt on the part of the students and faculty members that career opportunities in industry and government are authentic, in that they offer not only immediate employment, but also long-range opportunity for better positions. This "believability" problem persists despite several years of efforts by organizations like Plans for Progress, and the Vice President's Task Force for Youth Motivation. This is understandable in view of the restricted backgrounds from which most of the students come, and it reflects the years that the faculty members have observed their graduates' unsuccessful attempts to find career employment in industry and government.

Where faculty members have had actual work experience in government or industrial positions—a very small percentage of the faculty at the predominantly Negro colleges—there is less of a "believability" problem. Where students are specializing in engineering and science curricula, there is also less of a "believability" problem. The problem becomes less intense the closer an institution is to the Mason-Dixon line.

This "believability" problem contributes to the frequent number of "no shows" on employer recruiting schedules and to the low acceptance rate of job offers by students at the predominantly Negro colleges.

(*Continued on page 28*)

What Title VI Means for the Local Office

HARRY R. MITCHELL

In passing the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Congress recognized the existence of discrimination throughout the Nation and its harmful effect upon the national welfare. Title VI of the Act provides that discrimination based on race, color, or national origin be completely eliminated from all programs and activities which receive Federal financial support. If this title of the Act needs justification, no better reason can be advanced than that given by President Lyndon B. Johnson in commenting upon the principle of equality for all people in participation in Federal programs:

"It is simple justice that all should share in programs financed by all, and directed by the Government of all the people."

The basic mandate of title VI is contained in section 601, which states:

"No person in the United States shall on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

It should be noted that the language of this section protects every individual against discrimination in federally assisted programs by its reference to "no person." It is, therefore, specific in its applicability to each and every indvidual who may benefit under such program.

The objective of title VI is clearly to assure that all persons may participate in all programs and activities which receive full or partial Federal financial assistance without being discriminated against because of their race, color, or national origin. The prevalence of the practice of discrimination, based on these factors in our society, makes change imperative if the objective of this title is to be realized.

What is the nature of the change that title VI requires? It need not be a change in personal attitudes, though this is certainly desirable. The change must be in the behavior of people. This means that agencies, in carrying out federally supported programs, *must make sure that no one is discriminated against.* Patterns of deliberate discrimination, whether previously supported by law or tradition, must be eliminated. Unwitting discrimination, resulting from indifference or lack of awareness, likewise must be done away with.

Further, the change that title VI requires must be such that Federal programs do, in fact, touch all people for whom they are intended without regard to their race, color, or national origin. Only in this way can the programs have the intended impact. Such a change is of necessity one that can be felt by the Nation's minority people in terms of better opportunity and a better life. These manifestations of change must be continuous and substantial enough to be easily recognized. It must assure that Federal programs enrich all the people, not merely the majority, nor a special privilege group.

Title VI, therefore, is an instrument for bringing about necessary social change which will benefit not only those who have been deprived by discrimination, and who are largely disadvantaged, but also the Nation as a whole. This instrument is available to every Federal agency which extends financial assistance to recipients. The Department of Labor is firmly committed to the full implementation of its responsibilities for bringing about the great social change mandated by title VI.

In the Federal-State Employment Service system, the local office occupies a crucial position with respect to title VI, since it is the point at which services are provided to the public and discrimination can occur. The obligation for compliance with title VI, therefore, rests most heavily upon the local office. All local office staff must maintain constant surveillance to make sure that discrimination is kept out of all operations. This means that it is not only the duty of the manager and supervisors to see that staff under them do not discriminate, but also that it is the duty of each staff member to see that he himself does not discriminate nor permit discrimination to creep into the operations of the office.

The local office must become an active agent for change in the com-

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munity. It must conduct its programs scrupulously free of discrimination, and further, it must encourage and foster nondiscrimination at every opportunity. In keeping with the spirit of the law, the local office must undertake affirmative action. This means that it must reach beyond the doors of the office to work for nondiscriminatory employment practices on the part of employers, to find and to attract those whom discrimination has victimized, and to marshall all community resources for overcoming discrimination and for providing effective help and support to those who seek the reality of equal employment opportunity. Such efforts can have a telling effect in helping to rid the locality of discrimination in employment.

To carry out an affirmative action program effectively, a local office must have an intensive knowledge of the community in which it operates. It must know the racial and ethnic composition of the workforce, the skills of the workers in the various groups that make up this force, and the problems of the workers of each group. It must be familiar with employment practices on the part of specific industries and employers. It must be constantly concerned with attitudes in the community which affect employment. The local office must understand the relationship and significance of its programs to the community, especially to the minority group segment, and the community context in which its programs must operate.

Interagency Cooperation

Further, the local office must seek, develop, and strengthen cooperation and coordination of efforts among agencies, organizations, and individuals that are working to advance equal employment opportunity. While the local office may not, itself, be the coordinating agency, it can and should stimulate and encourage the development and growth of interagency cooperation and coordination.

In addition, the local office must find or develop successful techniques and approaches for bringing about a change to nondiscriminatory employment practices throughout the community. To be effective, such techniques and approaches may have to be tailored to particular situations.

Department of Labor Responsibility

Although State employment security agencies have manifested their willingness to comply with title VI, the Act imposes upon the Department of Labor the responsibility for assuring that compliance is achieved and maintained. At present, this responsibility is carried out in the spirit of assisting the State agencies to achieve such compliance. In accordance with the regulations of the Secretary of Labor to effectuate the provisions of title VI, the Manpower Administration has conducted approximately 200 local office reviews to assess compliance. These reviews have been made in all regions and in almost all State employment security agencies. Priority has been given to reviewing local office operations in those communities where there are significantly large minority group populations or from which complaints have been received. A complaint against an office has been considered sufficient to justify a review of its entire operations, and not merely an investigation of the specific allegations of the complaint.

Compliance reviews have revealed discriminatory practices, or activities that are discriminatory in their effect, in all parts of the country. No region has been found to be free of discrimination. Moreover, a striking similarity appears in the ways in which discrimination is practiced in all regions.

Some of the more common forms of discriminatory practices found in local offices are described here, because of their apparent prevalence and the need for their immediate recognition and elimination.

- There was failure frequently to assign occupational classifications that fully represent the education, training, experience, skills, abilities, and interests of minority group applicants, while generally giving more complete classification assignments to those of other applicants. Minority group applicants usually were assigned only those classifications considered suitable for such persons in the community. Classification according to traditional employment patterns sometimes resulted from the attitude of local office staff that minority applicants are capable only of low-skilled and menial work. In such situations, no effort was made to identify the applicants' other qualifications, or if apparent, they were ignored.
- Failure to recognize the need of minority group applicants for counseling, while the counseling needs of other applicants were recognized and met, was often revealed. Obvious indications of the need of minority applicants for counseling were generally ignored and records showed that few of such applicants, if any, were counseled.
- Failure to refer qualified minority applicants to jobs in which such applicants were not usually employed in a particular community was found to be widespread. This practice constituted a formidable deterrent to the entry of minority applicants into white collar employment.
- In communities with separate casual labor and domestic offices, the clientele of these offices are usually predominantly minority applicants, and no registrations are taken. In such offices, rarely was an organized effort made to identify those applicants who possessed qualifications for registration at other local offices and to direct them to those offices for service. Hence, minority group persons willing to accept casual or domestic work, but qualified and available for regular work of other kinds, were deprived of the opportunity for service commensurate with their total qualifications. The same restricted service was frequently given to minority applicants in general offices, if they happened to apply at the casual or domestic division of the office.
- Interviewers, in many offices, were found to be referring applicants to employers according to the interviewers' knowledge, belief, or understanding of employers' hiring practices pertaining to race, although

(*Continued on page 10*)

Oklahoma Gears for the Civil Rights Act

MATTIE M. JELTZ

"Our mission is at once the oldest and most basic of this country. Should we defeat every enemy, double our wealth, conquer the stars and still be unequal to this issue [Civil Rights], then we will have failed as a people and as a nation"—Lyndon B. Johnson.

As a preliminary step to carrying out its duties under the Civil Rights Act, the Oklahoma State Agency selected five employees to serve as a team to train other agency employees in their new responsibilities. The team had been selected from local office personnel because it was believed that they could communicate more effectively with other local office employees. The members of the team were the managers of the Lawton, Muskogee, and Altus local offices, an interviewer from the Tulsa Professional and Clerical office, and a supervising interviewer from the Oklahoma City Youth Opportunity Center.

Each team member was assigned a topic for development and presentation, with the general theme emphasizing the fact that Equal Opportunity in Employment means not only the matching of people and jobs, but also the broader aspects of the Employment Service functioning as the community manpower services agency. The presentations were made to groups of 20 to 25 agency employees at sessions held in the Administrative Office.

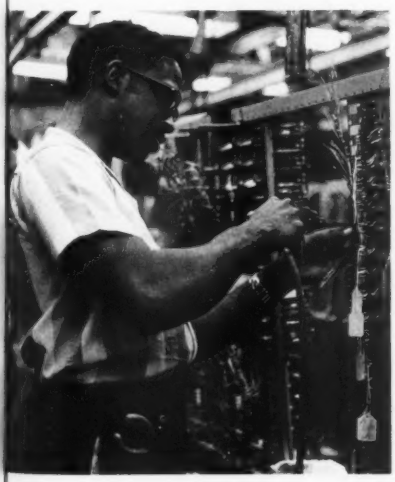
The meetings were scheduled so that local office operations would not be impaired seriously.

The assigned topics were: Purpose of training, legal aspects, local office functions affected by the Civil Rights Act, and public relations and community participation.

At each presentation, the team was introduced by the Employment Service Director, who stated that, "Recent legislative measures including the Manpower Development and Training Act, Vocational Education Act, as well as the Civil Rights Act of 1964, now require the Employment Service to rethink and reevaluate its role in working toward the new solutions of old problems."

Thirteen training sessions were held, beginning in mid-November. Group training was held from 9 a.m. to noon, while the afternoons were devoted to personal interviews of trainees by a panel made up of one member from the training team, and two employees of the Administrative Office. The trainees were given an opportunity to state their views, ask

Western Electric Co. of Oklahoma City requested help in implementing its equal opportunity agreements.



Bank employees at a walk-up window.

Mattie M. Jeltz is Minorities Representative for the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission.

The customer service department in a bank.

questions, and give their evaluation of the effectiveness of the training.

In February 1966, the minorities representative and field supervisors made a survey of all local offices in the State to evaluate the effectiveness of the training. In addition to statistical recording, the offices were asked to furnish information on employers who specifically requested help in implementing their Equal Opportunity agreements; an account of any precedent-breaking or unusual placement activity involving minority group applicants; and detailed statements of problems encountered in implementing the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Among other things, the study revealed that there was a general increase in the number of minority group applicants using the Employment Service. It was especially noticeable and generally expected that the number of service and unskilled applicants increased substantially, while there was a dearth of skilled, clerical, and professional applicants. These data substantiated previous studies, which showed that the gap between job specifications and the educational and vocational preparedness of minority group applicants continued to widen.

Thus, the Employment Service is facing realistically the fact that the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, other things being equal, would not automatically alleviate all the evils resulting from unequal opportunities. Note is taken of the disproportionate number of minority unskilled workers, as well as the disproportionate number of students who drop out of predominantly Negro schools and schools with a large population of other racial minorities. Attention is likewise directed to the rural-to-urban migration which currently is rising and is expected to continue.

Efforts to cope with these problems began in October 1965, when the Oklahoma State Agency held a luncheon meeting in Oklahoma City with leaders of minority group organizations, civil rights leaders, and personnel officers of Federal, State, county, and city governments and private enterprises. William Fowler of the State Department of Labor, clearly defined the law and the role of the Employment Service in its implementation. A similar meeting was held in Tulsa for the eastern half of the State.

From these two meetings, an informal advisory group of interested citizens has been formed to advise the agency and motivate minorities to take advantage of training opportunities. Joint job development and applicant recruitment activities have been effected with the Urban League, the NAACP, the YWCA, and the Interdenominational Ministerial Alliance.

In addition to these activities, the minority groups representative consults regularly with Administrative Department heads, local office managers, and counselors to aid them in compliance, and to take cognizance of the agency's progress in its commitment to full compliance with the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

TITLE VI

(*Continued from page 8*)

there were no discriminatory specifications in the job orders. Under this practice, minority applicants were referred only to those employers who were known by local office personnel to be willing to accept them, and then, in most instances, only for jobs where their employment was customary.

- Minority group MDTA graduates were not given placement assistance that was quantitatively and qualitatively equal to that provided to nonminority graduates. In some cases, minority graduates received no referrals; in others the referrals received were to the lower-wage jobs or to jobs of short duration. In some cases, nonminority applicants received not only routine referral service but also job development service, while no attempt was made to develop jobs for the minority applicants who were clearly experiencing difficulty in obtaining employment.

The discriminatory practices described are by no means the only kinds that may occur. Discrimination may take many forms, some very subtle. It must be emphasized that any service is discriminatory if it is provided to an individual in a different form, manner, quality, quantity, time, or place from that provided to others because of the individual's race, color, or national origin. Constant vigilance must be maintained to exclude discrimination from local office operations.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act provides local Employment Services offices with the legal stamina to wage a resolute fight to overcome discrimination in employment. They must not fail to use it.

Equal Employment Opportunity Conference for Women. Left to right: John Evans, Chairman, Employment Security Commission of Arizona; Mrs. Aileen C. Hernandez, Commissioner, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; Joseph H. Hineman, Applicant Services Supervisor, Arizona State Employment Service; Gov. Samuel Goddard, State of Arizona; Charles A. Boyle, Administrator, Arizona State Employment Service.

Arizona's Experience Under The Civil Rights Act

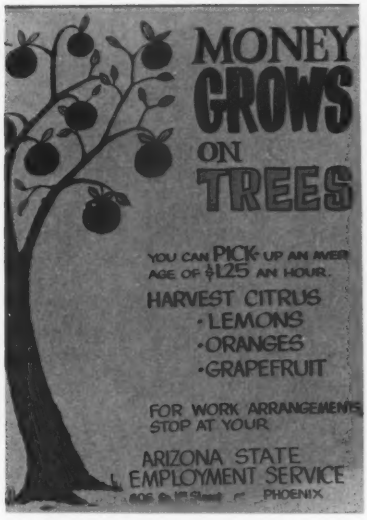
CARL E. CRAIG and WOODROW WILSON RICHARDS

The Civil Rights Act places a responsibility on the Employment Service to educate both its own personnel and the community to the concept that the Act—properly understood—requires positive action to make equal employment opportunity a reality. While adherence to the letter of the law has made the Act effective, it is the spirit of the law that has captured the imagination and made the Act meaningful to the dejected, the underemployed and the unemployed.

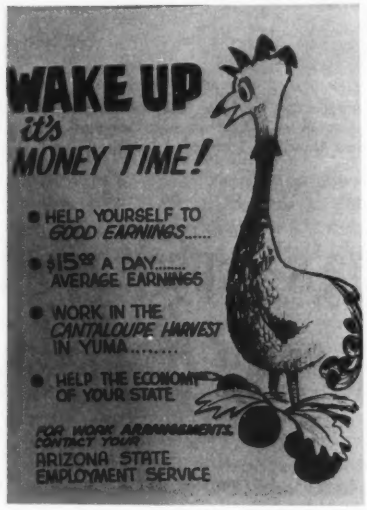
The Civil Rights Act, however, had different meaning to different people, and not all attitudes were positive. Most will recall the anguish of some employers who felt that *their* civil rights would be violated if their operation were subject to close scrutiny by the Federal Government. Wild rumors abounded concerning quotas of minorities, firing of white workers, and the discarding of job requirements.

The Arizona State Employment Service has long assumed a responsibility to educate, interpret, and disseminate information that would shape positive community attitudes. When negative employer attitudes began to appear, the Administrator, the Chief of Field Operations, the

Carl E. Craig is Supervisor of Services to Minorities and Woodrow Wilson Richards is Community Relations Consultant in the Arizona State Employment Service.



Mira!
Se Puede Hacer Dinero
Puede ganar buen sueldo.....hasta $1.50 por dia o mas.
Trabaje en la cosecha de melon en Yuma.
Ayude la economia de Arizona.
Si desea trabajar haga contacto con la oficina
ARIZONA STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE


WAKE UP it's MONEY TIME!
HELP YOURSELF TO GOOD EARNINGS.....
$1.50 A DAY..... AVERAGE EARNINGS
WORK IN THE CANTALOUPE HARVEST IN YUMA.....
HELP THE ECONOMY OF YOUR STATE
FOR WORK ARRANGEMENTS CONTACT YOUR
ARIZONA STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Bilingual recruitment material.

Supervisor of the Central District, and the Supervisor of Services to Minorities met with the Executive Secretary of the Phoenix Chamber of Commerce. Their discussion of employer concerns over the Civil Rights Act led to the decision to hold a conference on the State and Federal Civil Rights Acts for chamber members, with the cosponsorship of Arizona State University Business Education Department and the City of Phoenix Human Relations Commission.

The 150 major employers, all covered by title VII, heard the labor attorney of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce speak on the Federal Act, and the Arizona Attorney General speak on the State Civil Rights Act. A panel consisting of the two speakers, the Administrator of Arizona State Employment Service, the President of the Chamber of Commerce, and the Executive Secretary of the Phoenix Human Relations Commission, answered spirited questions from employers. The leadership role played by the ES agency in this conference made it the focal point of inquiries regarding the employment of minorities, and its assistance was sought in integrating industry workforces.

In Tucson, the area office of the ASES took the initiative and cosponsored a conference on the Federal Civil Rights Act with the Tucson Chamber of Commerce, the Tucson Human Relations Commission, and the University of Arizona. Held on the University campus, and attended by representatives of 100 business firms, the conference clarified many of the issues which were of concern to employers.

The ASES prepared a booklet presenting a summarized version of the Arizona State Civil Rights Act in May 1965, for use primarily as internal training material. A few complimentary copies sent to employers resulted in so many requests that the Agency published the booklet, "Civil Rights Legislation," a compilation of all civil rights legislation affecting Arizona. A vast number of these booklets has now been distributed, upon request, to employers, officials in State, city, and county government, and to minority organizations, including CORE, NAACP, and the Urban League.

The booklet has also been issued to all local offices, via State bulletins, with instructions for staff training and reporting. The State Supervisor of Services to Minorities and the Community Relations Consultant have given formal training on titles VI and VII of the Federal Civil Rights Act to local offices, giving special attention to the metropolitan offices.

Agency attitudes regarding civil rights had been clearly defined by a strongly worded executive bulletin from the Administrator which was read and signed by each employee of the agency. Pertinent sections are as follows:

Personnel of this agency will not perform any prejudicial or illegal act in behalf of any employer but will instead adhere totally and without exception to our legal obligations.

We will not be a shield against his moral or legal penalties if such a dis-

criminatory policy does govern his hiring practices. If the loss of specific employer job orders is the penalty we pay for our unequivocal adherence to nondiscriminatory referral practices, I am willing this penalty be paid rather than enter into any illegal and immoral arrangements supporting his prejudices and discriminatory practices. I will not defend any employee who may knowingly and willfully cooperate with such an employer on the basis that such cooperation is necessary if we are to continue to receive his job orders for placement record purposes.

When the State Civil Rights Commission was appointed under the Arizona Civil Rights Act, the commissioners' names were sent to all offices with the request that local offices establish contact with the commissioner representing their areas.

Soon after his appointment, the Executive Director of the State Civil Rights Commission and his assistant met with the Administrator and his staff. Cordial relations and a spirit of cooperation were immediately established. While waiting for the completion of their office, the Civil Rights Commission was given the use of facilities at the State Administrative Office.

The ASES assisted the Civil Rights Commission in designing and translating into Spanish the official civil rights antidiscrimination posters. At the present time, through a verbal agreement, the Executive Director of the State Civil Rights Commission speaks to each MDTA graduating class on their rights under the Federal and State Civil Rights Acts. During the May Commission meeting, the Administrator of the ASES was the guest speaker.

On November 7, 1965, the ASES hosted the Regions VIII and X Conference on Civil Rights in Phoenix. The Executive Director of the National Urban League delivered the keynote address. State office staff, including the Minority Specialist, metropolitan office staff, and local office managers participated in or observed workshops, and many personnel attended the banquet and luncheon.

As a followup, the Arizona State

Conference on Federal and State Civil Rights Acts. Left to right: James E. Patrick, Phoenix Chamber of Commerce; Glen D. Overman, Arizona State University; James W. Hunt, U.S. Chamber of Commerce; Darrell F. Smith, Arizona Attorney General; Charles A. Boyle, Arizona State Employment Service.

Employment Service held its own Civil Rights Conference designed primarily for local office managers, assistant managers, and key administrative staff on November 23, 1965. The luncheon address was delivered by the Executive Director of the State Civil Rights Commission. The conference was structured into workshops designed for the exchange of ideas on implementing the Civil Rights Act. The booklet of the proceedings, entitled "Conference on Improving Services to Minority Groups," was released to the local offices with training instruction and reporting on selected items.

On February 19, 1966, the ASES cosponsored an Equal Opportunity Conference for Women with the Arizona State AFL–CIO, Arizona Civil Rights Commission, Arizona State University, and the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. This conference had the support of most women's clubs in the Phoenix area, including clubs of senior citizens. A commissioner from the Equal Opportunity Commission delivered the keynote address. This conference aroused considerable interest in women's rights by the Governor's Commission on the Status of

(*Continued on page 53*)

A meeting of the Committee of Intergroup Relations Organizations. Left to right: Junius Bowman, Phoenix Urban League; Philip Malinsky, Arizona State Civil Rights Commission; Henry A. Cabirac, Phoenix Human Relations Commission; and Harold Schnurer, Small Business Administration.

Critical Problems in Achieving Equal Employment Opportunity

HOWARD C. LOCKWOOD

Not all of the critical problems in providing equal employment opportunity lie ahead of us. Three or four years ago the problems looming largest would have been how to eliminate discrimination in employment and the acceptance of minority personnel in occupations which formerly had been closed to them. A massive breakthrough has been made on both of these fronts and, even though there is still much to be done, elimination of these problems seems assured.

But now that the doors of opportunity have been swung wide open, far more serious problems have become all to apparent. Because of many years of discrimination and rejection, many minority individuals are very poorly prepared educationally and even psychologically to accept their new role.

This article describes some of the actions taken by industry to ameliorate yesterday's critical problems, some of the progress made, and some of the things being done to solve the long range problems ahead.

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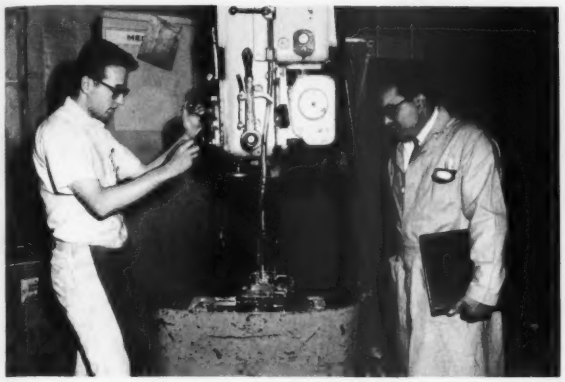
Pettigrew, in an article in 1961 in the AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST, said that ". . . peaceful integration has generally followed firm and forceful leadership." The Plans for Progress Program of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity exemplifies that statement. In 1961, President Kennedy issued Executive Order 10925, which ruled that government contracts could be cancelled if a company were found to discriminate in its employment practices.

Soon after the issuance of the order, a number of employees of the Lockheed plant in Marietta, Ga., filed complaints claiming discrimination. An Atlanta attorney, a member of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, was assigned to discuss the situation with Lockheed officials. Much progress had already been made at the facility in integrating work crews and the Committee found the charges largely unsubstantiated. However, the company undertook a voluntary program to promote equal employment opportunity. A plan of action was drawn up by the company and the President's Committee and was signed by the president of Lockheed and then Vice President Johnson. This became known as a "Plan for Progress."

The company's "Plan for Progress" stated that minority applicants would be actively recruited through contacts with community organizations, schools, State employment offices, private recruiting agencies, and minority newspapers. The qualifications of all present employees were reviewed to see if any were underemployed. Responsibility for implementation of this program was specifically assigned, and statistics showing the distribution of minority employees in the work force were to be used in tracking progress at regular intervals.

Since 1961 over 300 large companies have signed and implemented similar plans. Hiring of nonwhites by Plans for Progress companies has been impressive. Figures on 100 companies in 1964 show that, while total employment increased 3 percent, nonwhite employment increased 15 percent; while total salaried employment increased 1 percent, nonwhite salaried employment increased 16 percent; and while hourly employment increased 5 percent, nonwhite hourly employment increased 14 percent.

One of the problems anticipated in providing equal employment, that largely failed to materialize, was the concern about the acceptance of nonwhite employees by fellow employees and by the public with which they came in contact. An equal opportunity committee in the Eisenhower administration produced a film, "New Girl in the Office." Many people were concerned about whether



An instructor checks the work of a trainee in a 12-week machine shop operator course. The program was set up under MDTA auspices through the Urban League and contains a number of minority applicants.

Through a 26-week on-the-job training program, an employee learns to plan tools needed for production.

nonwhites would be accepted in traditionally all white jobs. The experience of many companies indicates that this problem was largely exaggerated.

The airlines, for example, introduced Negro stewardesses to their lines. They were not only readily accepted by the other stewardesses in training, but the airlines received many letters from passengers commending them for their action. The public also accepted Negro ticket agents, even in some Southern cities, without incident.

The vice president of an eastern utility hand-picked six Negroes to become to the company's first Negro servicemen. He explained to them that they would be visiting homes at all hours of the day and night to answer trouble calls and that possibly the residents would not let them in. Other company officials felt it was a rather dangerous experiment. Yet, in over 1 year of operation there has not been one incident.

Integration of minority persons into the work force has even been accomplished in the deep South, due to the persistent and unflinching efforts of local management. When the first Negro was moved into a Louisiana plant, the union called a walkout. Company officials said that this was in violation of the labor agreement and that any workers who did not want to work with Negroes could quit. Only one man did, and the pattern had been changed.

This is not to say that integration of facilities and work groups in southern plants has been entirely achieved or achieved without difficulty. But management is actively working in this direction and is making steady progress.

The most serious problem that companies have encountered in the last few years is that of finding enough qualified minority applicants. As companies have sought out and rapidly hired nonwhites to fill positions, the supply of immediately qualified applicants has dwindled. This is to some degree a problem that can be relieved by more intensive recruiting efforts. The minority person, who for so many years was shunned or at best ignored, now has to be reconditioned to realize that he does truly have opportunities that did not exist before.

The vice president of one of the smaller manufacturing concerns in Detroit told the writer that some time back few Negroes applied at his concern even though it was located in a predominantly Negro neighborhood. Even after the company signed a Plan for Progress and tried to stimulate the flow of applicants, it took some time before minority persons applied. The word had to reach the community and the company had to hire some Negroes before applicants began to appear in any number.

Some companies have made it a regular practice to meet with leaders in the minority community to explain their sincerity in hiring minority applicants. In some cases community leaders, such as ministerial groups, have spread the word that a company will consider qualified applicants.

An organized effort to uncover underutilized nonwhite personnel is being undertaken by the National Urban League. Individuals may ask through their local Urban League that their names be put in a skills bank. Upon obtaining a request for applicants with certain qualifications, the League makes a search and provides résumés to a prospective employer.

The recruiting of qualified minority applicants represents a special problem, because they may still not be convinced that they will get equal consideration. A high degree of "believability" has to be established. A greater long-range problem is convincing the students of today, directly and through parents and educators, that opportunities will exist for those who become properly educated and trained. Again this is partly a matter of overcoming previous conditioning.

This conditioning was brought home to me very forcibly in a conversation with a successful young

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These employees are receiving training to update their technical skill in electrical assembly work.

Negro with a master's degree from Howard University, who had grown up in Washington. He said that because for years he was not allowed to eat in many Washington restaurants, he now could not fully enjoy a meal in them because something inside him kept saying, "You don't belong here. You don't belong here."

We can only imagine the feelings of the many individuals who are far less well qualified to accept the new opportunities open to them, who through lack of stimulus by parents, teachers, and society have developed little confidence to compete in a new role.

Plans for Progress companies, working together in many cases, have mounted projects to achieve this reorientation of attitudes. One of the most impressive of these is a $250,000 public information program that will be conducted by the Advertising Council. Financing will be by the Ford Foundation. The objective will be to convince minorities that there truly are equal employment opportunities for those who are prepared for them. The theme is "Things Are Changing." The program will consist of radio and TV spot announcements, newspaper and magazine ads, and car card posters. It will even include the distribution of a rock and roll record of a ditty, "Things Are Changing," to 4,000 radio stations.

Plans for Progress companies in 12 metropolitan centers in 1965 also conducted vocational guidance seminars for principals and teachers of predominantly Negro high schools. The purpose was to apprise the participants of companies' equal employment opportunity activities and of the requirements for jobs. The programs included plant tours and discussions with Negro and other minority employees. Many of the programs also included classroom material on the general problems of minorities and of the role of various agencies in providing assistance.

The need to have success images with which to identify is very important for minority youth. As the first group of engineering students at one Negro college said, "Please bring a Negro engineer to the campus so that we can see one. Until we see one we're not really sure that it will do us any good to get an engineering degree."

Numerous companies have prepared brochures showing minority employees in a wide range of occupations. They have set up community "Career Days" especially for minority high school students to show the opportunities available.

To obtain a sufficent number of qualified applicants many companies have gone to special training programs. Six companies in New York City, five of which were in Plans for Progress, financed a program at N.Y.U. to upgrade the secretarial skills of 160 unemployed women. The program will continue with a greater emphasis in giving training in secretarial skills to women who are employed in lesser occupations.

Many companies have made intensive efforts to get minority individuals into apprentice programs for the skilled trades, occupational areas which were largely devoid of nonwhites in the past.

Through on-the-job and institutional training programs under the Federal Manpower Development and Training Act the skills of the unemployed, many of them from minority groups, are being upgraded.

Some companies, such as Campbell Soup and ALCOA, have even sponsored basic education courses for unskilled workers to enable them to retain their jobs in the face of technological change.

There are few people in industry or in the government who recommend putting minority individuals into positions for which they are not qualified. Secretary of Labor Wirtz, Vice Chairman of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, made the position of the Federal Government very clear on this point and on quota hiring:

"There will be neither pressing nor acceptance of the idea of quotas as far as the Administration and government is concerned, and as far as the President's Committee is concerned, and as far as Plans for Progress is concerned. I feel similarly . . . about the matter of hiring unqualified people. I think it defeats the idea of the program, if there should be any insistence that anybody is hired for any reason except his qualifications for the job."

However, the relative lack of "qualified" Negro and other minority applicants has caused a closer look

A young machinist apprentice learns to use a drill press under the watchful eye of his foreman.

at the meaning of the word "qualified." Many, if not most, companies have arbitrarily set high school graduation as a qualification for employment for jobs running from messenger boy to machinist. Other jobs traditionally have required a college degree. Most segments of our society, even the more vociferous minority groups, accept these as reasonable requirements. It is recognized that special training or previous experience may be required for certain jobs and few seek any substantial reduction in these requirements.

A further source of qualification of employees, however, the use of various personnel tests, has presented a greater source of concern to employers and minority representatives. Data are very scarce, but companies have indicated that a much smaller percent of Negroes qualify on selection test batteries than do whites being considered for the same jobs.

Companies, then, who would like to add more minority individuals to their work force, are faced with a dilemma. Should they lower their standards for minority individuals? Should they lower standards for all applicants? Should they quit using tests? Should they intensify their recruiting efforts? Should they develop or use different tests?

Discussions the writer has had with other psychologists and with personnel people indicate that most companies are adhering to minimum test standards previously set and are intensifying their recruiting efforts. Still there is a search for some different answer, an answer that will somehow take into account the years of cultural deprivation that many minority individuals have suffered. "Culture fair" or "culture free" tests do not seem to be the answer.

Some of the main actions which personnel psychologists can immediately take in regard to the testing of minority applicants are:

1. We should carefully examine job content before choosing tests for use and validation to see that test content is relevant to job requirements.

2. We should, whenever possible, be certain that the tests we are using have actually been validated for the specific use to which they are being put. Lacking specific validation, we should have evidence from other studies.

3. We should train employment people so that they are not just selecting those with top scores, but are also selecting those who pass the minimums.

4. We should make renewed efforts to measure the elusive but all important factor of motivation.

Of course, there is nothing startling and new about these suggestions. They should be the essentials of any good testing program. But the seriousness of this problem requires that each of us and our companies examine our consciences and our correlations.

Most psychologists appear to agree that the differences shown on tests between white and nonwhite groups are primarily the result of cultural differences. Reasonably convincing studies show that when cultural factors are essentially the same for whites and nonwhites, average test scores are essentially the same.

Complex Problem

Thus, the differences in test scores may very well point out the most critical problem of all in providing equal employment opportunity: the more complex social problem of providing equal educational opportunity. Even though in the last decade the average education levels of nonwhites rose 2 years, nonwhites in the work force still have an educational average of only 9½ years of school as compared to 12 years for whites. The Negro high school graduates may, on the average, be as much as 2 years behind their white counterparts in educational achievement.

Solutions to the problem of educational inequality are beyond the scope of this paper. However, it seems certain that until nonwhite parents infuse their children at a very early age with a desire to learn, that until those parents through their own experience are convinced that education will pay off in good jobs, that until the educational opportunities for Negroes are truly equal across the land, only then can the objective of equal employment opportunity be fully achieved.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

(*Continued from page 3*)

involved in the promotion of equal employment opportunities, particularly with employers whose business accounts for a substantial number of placements each year. Nevertheless, we are legally, and morally, bound to no other course of action.

I am urging each State administrator to appraise the program of service to minorities in his State with a view to bringing his program in line with the true meaning of our policy to promote equal employment opportunity. Fully and effectively implementing that policy is our challenge.

A Second Chance . . .

MDTA Project Uplift

H. E. Woodward (left), Selection and Referral Officer, Greensboro local office, discusses post-training placement activity with (left to right) Nathaniel Marshburn, Project Uplift full-time Placement Officer, and S. C. Smith, Dean, A&T College Technical Institute.

JAMES E. FILIPSKI

Today, the job market, ever increasing in complexity, requires certain standards of preparation by members of the labor force. Many of today's unemployed need a "second chance" to qualify for or to meet these standards.

With a 1.8 percent rate of unemployment as of May 1966 in the Greensboro, N.C., area which has a total labor force of 91,530, there are more job openings than unemployed job applicants. Daily, we interview and counsel too many job applicants who lack basic educational requirements for even trainee jobs; too many adults who lack both literacy and a vocational skill and whose financial needs outstrip their earning capacity.

A large majority of the hardcore unemployed are Negro. Despite several years of schooling, some are unable to complete a simple job application form or to take the traditional tests to determine latent aptitudes. These are the unemployed who only 10 to 15 years ago were rarely registered for employment, who were seldom counseled for training, and who had little opportunity to become attached to a steady job. In a loose job market, they were the forgotten and forsaken.

Today, with our new concept of service to meet the needs of all applicants, with special emphasis on manpower training and development, many of these hard-core unemployed are finding a "second chance" to meet standards for employment. In the Greensboro area, this opportunity presented itself in MDTA Project Uplift.

A unique experimental and demonstration retraining program, Project Uplift was conceived and developed during the early part of 1964 and implemented during the first 9 months of 1965 at North Carolina Agricultural & Technical College. The main purpose of the project was to provide basic education and vocational training to selected heads of families categorized as educationally, vocationally, and culturally disadvantaged. It offered a second chance to these persons, many of whom had been either unemployed or unemployable for years. Its objective, of course, was to prepare the trainee so that he might become an economic asset to the community, to his family, and to himself.

The trainees selected for the project were those whose formal educational background was not above a 6th grade level. Participants were also to be between the ages of 22 and 50, heads of families or households, living in urban or rural communities or members of farm facilities, with annual incomes of less than $1,200.

The very nature of this project related it to a significant extent with the national war on poverty. Consequently, the project was restricted to persons who were residents of North Carolina's Guilford (home of A&T College), Stokes, and Davie Counties. The latter two counties, part of the Appalachian region, were listed as depressed areas.

Project Uplift, which provided retraining for over 200 men and women, was made possible by Federal grants to the college totaling $261,000 under joint sponsorship of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Wel-

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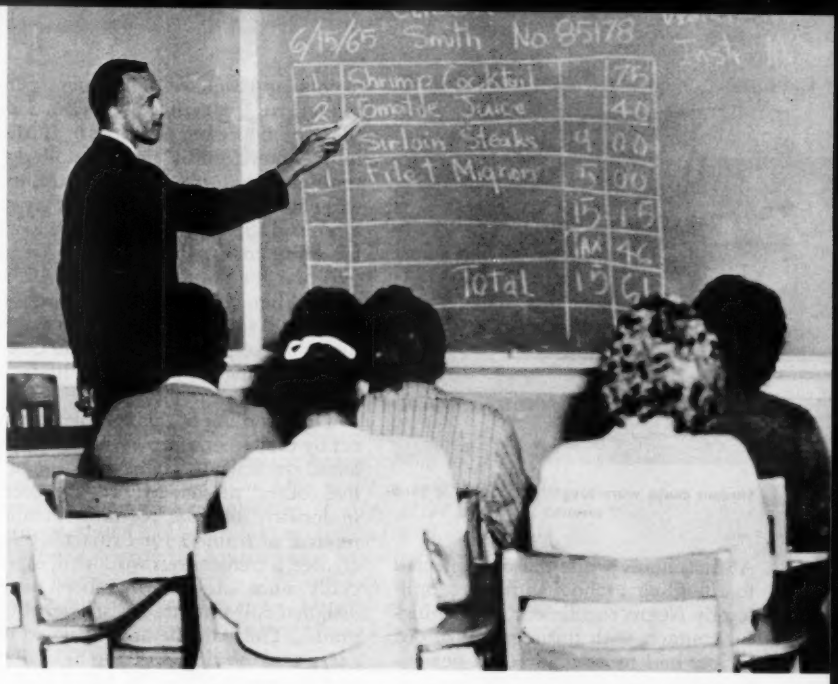
fare and the U.S. Department of Labor's Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

The instructional part of the program included specific training in basic education, with emphasis on communication and computational skills; vocational preparation in eight occupations in which shortages were most critical; and training in the broad areas of social processes.

The eight vocational courses offered were for entry in the following jobs: Auto body repairman, auto mechanics, bricklaying, carpentry, cook, custodial maintenance, nurse aide, and waiter and waitress. Trainees had 5 hours of vocational training per day for 12 to 26 weeks, depending on their vocational course. Trainees were also given 3 hours of adult basic education each day.

In addition to the intensive basic educational and vocational training, the project offered participants numerous related services, which were provided jointly through the Greensboro office of the Employment Security Commission and the college, covering areas of vocational and employment counseling, job development, placement, and supportive services. The project had a full-time job developer on its staff who coordinated this activity with the ESC offices.

The project staff also was equipped to handle personal and social problems. Two counselors and three social workers were employed by the project to help the trainees and their families cope with problems that arose out of this new life situation. Additionally, it was realized that the characteristics of the trainees were such that they would bring many of their life-long problems with them to the project. To handle these problems of adjustment, the social workers established family group meetings in the trainees' home areas and visited the families in their homes. Project staff also acted as referral agents to allow trainees and their families the maximum use of existing community agencies.



As part of the waiter-waitress course, the trainees received instruction in preparing meal checks.

By far, the most pressing problems of trainees involved economics. The training allowances in effect during this period were inadequate to meet the trainees' needs. Many had long-standing debts. In some cases, the debt was so large that the trainee was forced to leave the program and go to work on a full-time basis.

Following formal signing of the contract on December 28, 1964, the Greensboro local office and the local offices located in the other target areas of High Point, Salisbury, and Winston-Salem joined forces with the project's staff of social workers and counselors in a crash program to recruit, screen, counsel, and refer trainees. Although this project had taken many months to be developed, only 1 month was allowed for its implementation.

Recruitment by the Greensboro local office of the 35 or more professional social workers, counselors, academic teachers, vocational instructors, and clerical personnel to staff the project presented little or no problem. However, the recruitment of trainees over a multicounty area was a more difficult matter. A majority of the target population sought was located in geographically hard-to-reach areas, and they were unresponsive to mass-media means of communication. They were also most apprehensive of "outsiders" and suspicious of propositions that would bring about a socio-economic change in their lives.

Distribution by Age and Sex

Age	Total	Men	Women
Totals	210	129	89
22–26 years	51	26	25
27–31	50	28	22
32–36	43	30	13
37–41	22	10	12
42–47	32	23	9
48+	20	12	8

Vocational Distribution

Course	Enrolled	Completed
Totals	218	167
Auto body repairman	29	16
Auto mechanic	31	28
Bricklayer	29	16
Carpenter	22	14
Cook	30	26
Janitor-custodian	13	11
Nurse aide	32	30
Waiter-waitress	32	26

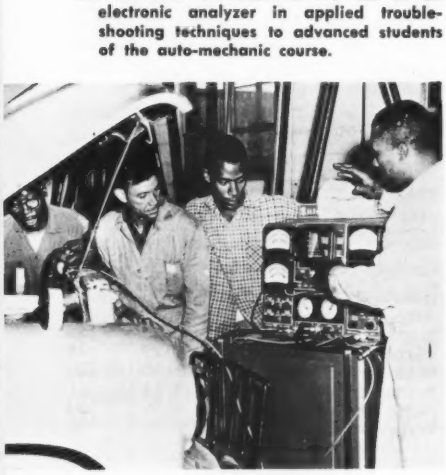
Student cooks were taught all phases of food service.

At first, many white persons objected to attending a school with a predominantly Negro enrollment. Meaningful contacts with this segment of our society had to be made on a person-to-person basis and by individuals in whom they could develop confidence.

Recruitment efforts in the urban areas presented less difficulty, since trainees were easily identified and their needs and desires were known. Also, many of the urban area trainees were already registered with the local office.

In addition to the recruitment efforts by the Selection and Referral Officer (SRO) and other ES staff, project staff contacted local community leaders, agricultural extension agents, and welfare department personnel, concentrating their efforts in the two depressed counties. If the initial interview by project staff determined that the potential trainee was eligible for training, he was given a referral slip to the SRO at the local ES office for further secreening and selection for enrollment in the project. When doubt existed about the individual's literacy, counselors and social workers administered the Gray Oral Reading Test to assess literacy level.

An instructor demonstrates the use of an electronic analyzer in applied trouble-shooting techniques to advanced students of the auto-mechanic course.



The handling of this complex project by the Greensboro local office was a real challenge. There were already five other major MDTA projects underway, and the recruitment and referral of trainees for Project Uplift created a tremendous workload, especially since no staff members were assigned full-time to this special program. The staff member assigned to carry out the duties of the Selection and Referral Officer for MDTA also has responsibility for the Employer Relations program. Understanding the necessity for such training for many members of the labor force, staff members willingly worked the countless overtime hours.

The social-economic characteristics of the persons for whom the project was intended made normal recruitment methods and techniques relatively ineffective. A large number of potential trainees were on welfare rolls. Many were illiterate. Family units were obscure, with a high proportion of separations, and common-law marriages. Some were evading law enforcement agencies and were confronted with pending court or legal action. Many were totally unfamiliar with the services available to them and were geographically isolated from these services. As initially planned, one-third of the enrollment was to be recruited from each of the three counties. Recruitment efforts by ES and project staff had only limited success in the geographically hard-to-reach areas, and quotas for these areas had to be filled within the Greensboro area.

All the trainees quickly identified themselves with A&T College. They became great "Aggie" fans, mingled freely with the regular student body and moved about the campus with

Project instruction included nurse aide training in basic anatomy and patient care and treatment.

the same spirit as their younger counterparts. Many of the trainees were placed in resident status and lived in the on-campus dormitories. Though the ages of the participants ranged from 22 to 50 years, no problems arose because of age or the fact that all courses and activities were totally integrated.

Of the 218 trainees enrolled in Project Uplift, which began in February 1965, a total of 167 successfully completed training in June 1965. Initial response to training was most encouraging. Monthly reports from the Director of Project Uplift indicated the enrollees seemed to be positively motivated about the training program. Test results over 10- and 20-week intervals indicated substantial gains in literacy. The mean

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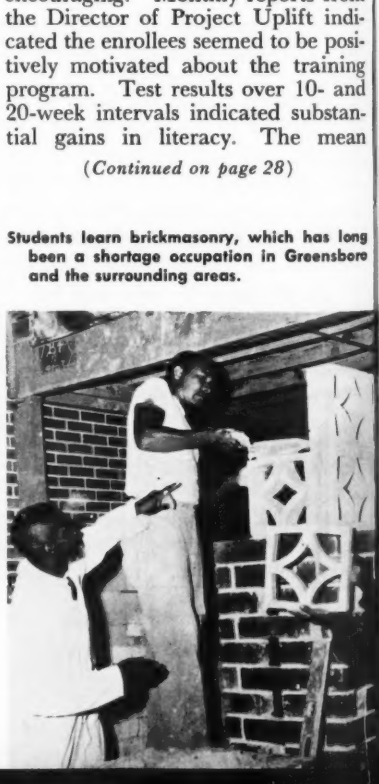
Students learn brickmasonry, which has long been a shortage occupation in Greensboro and the surrounding areas.



WATTS
one year later

DONALD PAGE

Since the tragic events of August 1965, which began in the area of Los Angeles known as Watts, many attempts have been made to improve conditions by many organizations, public and private. Under MDTA, there is now a Skill Center in operation. Under the auspices of a church group, Westminister Neighborhood Center is contributing more to a healing of wounds than most other private organizations. The Chamber of Commerce of Los Angeles has also shown itself responsive to the needs of the Watts area. This article will deal, however, with only one new approach taken by the State government to serve the area.

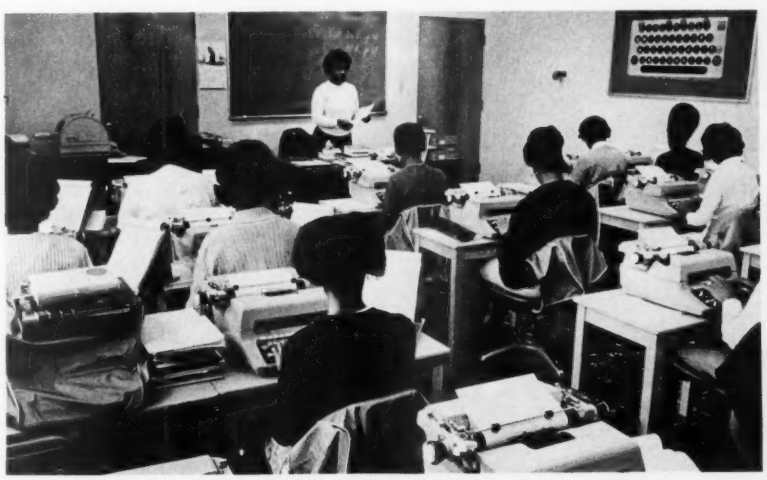
Watts is a relatively small area within the city of Los Angeles, but the four nights of rioting there a year ago aroused the interest of the world.

All of us learned a hard lesson from Watts, for it demonstrated a vital need for the establishment of services to meet the needs of people caught up in the harsh circumstances of an urban ghetto.

The Watts riot ended August 16. The suggestion for a "one-stop" service center was first made on August 20. By August 27, the premises located at 10233 South Central Avenue were occupied and open for business.

There were several reasons for opening a service center at Watts. First, Watts is not a self-contained entity but simply a ghetto district in Los Angeles. However, it is an expensive place to live when it comes to looking for work or seeking government services. Public transportation operates on infrequent schedules and is costly. The answer was obvious: Take the services to the people, and provide as many services as possible under one roof so that those seeking help are not shunted from one place to another. In the Watts location, in addition to the Employment Service contingent, are representatives of the Division of Apprenticeship Standards, the Consumers Counsel, the State Department of Social Welfare, FEPC, Vocational Rehabilitation, and several local agencies. Virtually all efforts, however, are directed toward *jobs* for residents of Watts.

For the period since this office opened, we are able to present some



These girls are learning to be clerk-typists.

Donald Page is Acting Chief of Employment Service, California Department of Employment.

A television training class.

encouraging results. By the end of May 1966, some 25,367 persons had contacted the center, of whom 18,590 had come for employment services. In addition, there were: 3,680 employer contacts; 4,332 job openings received, of which 2,499 were local openings; 4,962 total referrals; 1,662 nonfarm placements; 836 NYC referrals and 576 placements; 1,065 counseling interviews.

In May 1966 alone, 177 were referred to MDTA training. It is estimated that 500 will have been referred to MDTA by the end of fiscal year 1966, and as many as 3,500 may be referred by the end of fiscal year 1967. Of continuing importance are the methods that have been developed to provide service to the hard-core disadvantaged segment of the work force and that can be applied in our system of local employment service offices.

A trainee learns about the mechanics of an automobile.

One of the most creative and outstanding operations which is taking place in the Watts center is our positive recruitment program, which began on September 7, 1965. The unique feature is not the use of positive recruitment but the change in our approach to the employer from "We have what you need" to "This is what we have to offer." The positive recruitment program begins with a meeting between the employer and the center's management staff at which we ask that the employer consider the applicant for the specific job to be performed instead of regarding each applicant as a potential vice president of the company. We ask that the employer look at convictions rather than arrests; we explain the lack of a steady work history—in short, we ask that the employer evaluate the applicant in the context of his environment.

Job Clinics

For prospective applicants, we conduct job clinics to discuss such topics as: (1) the business of the company, (2) the company tests, (3) completing the employer's work application, (4) personal appearance, (5) attitude, (6) conduct during the interview, (7) what an employer can reasonably expect from an employee.

The operation of the center is fully integrated with the specialized ES offices already established in the heartland. Unlike our normal Employment Service operations where we attempt to match applicants to already received orders, we reverse the process in the operation of the center. A continuing survey of the applicant files is made in order to provide a constant inventory of the job needs of the community. Armed with this information, Employer Service Representatives operating out of the center, and in coordination with the other offices in the heartland, engage in an intensive, continuing employer contact throughout the heartland to develop job orders to meet the needs of the residents of Watts. In this campaign of employer contact, the Employer Service Representative assigned to the center represents all the heartland officies to the employers in the Watts sector.

The Service Center works closely with all community and service agencies in Los Angeles to promote employment opportunities. One of the most productive efforts has been with the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce. Through the efforts of H. C. "Chad" McClellan, Chairman of the President's Committee on Rehabilitation of the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce, and Murray Lewis, Coordinator for the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce minority hiring campaign, hundreds of residents of this area have found gainful employment. The chamber initiated the program by sending letters to the presidents of the 100 largest companies in the Los Angeles area. A followup letter was then sent to the personnel directors of the companies with a copy of the letter sent to the presidents. Job orders received through this campaign were either filled directly by the chamber or through the efforts of the Service Center. This campaign with the 100 largest establishments was followed by a similar campaign to smaller employers. This program is still being carried out under the auspices of the Management Council for Merit Employment Training and Research.

The Watts Service Center also provides a place from which to utilize various community resources and receives support from other agencies. The center is able to counsel people on the availability of various realistic services, but the successes experienced in Watts should not hide the fact that not all of the problems have been solved. The pressures and volume of applicants have not allowed us to do everything that needed to be done, and a great deal still remains for us to do in Watts and elsewhere in the State.

(*Continued on page 51*)

es newsletter

CONTRACT WITH NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE

The Department of Labor has contracted with the National Urban League to provide assistance to the Employment Service in implementing plans for manpower development. In announcing the contract, Secretary of Labor W. Willard Wirtz expressed hope that this cooperation would help solve the job problems of the hard-core unemployed in areas where they are concentrated.

The contract provides for the National Urban League to assist the Employment Service by recommending target areas appropriate for the participation of local Urban League affiliates and promoting this participation; recommending and developing programs in designated areas to help recruit disadvantaged minority group persons; helping to coordinate the activities of public and private agencies concerned with minority and other disadvantaged groups; and interpreting the program as it affects these groups to local officials, members of organizations, and the general public.

In carrying out its contract obligations, the National Urban League will work closely with its local affiliates in areas with manpower development programs to provide a wide variety of services. The nature and extent of participation by the local Leagues in the manpower development activities will be worked out by the State Employment Service agencies in consultation with Urban League officials.

MIGRANT WORKER STUDY

Under a research contract with the Department of Labor, the Rural Manpower Center of Michigan State University has undertaken a study of the adjustment problems of Mexican-American migratory farmworkers who seek permanent settlement in the North Central States. The study was prompted by the increasing numbers of these workers who are leaving the seasonal labor force to find permanent jobs, and the lack of information regarding their problems.

Until recent years, these migratory workers and their families maintained home bases in the Southwest, traveling north as far as the Upper Peninsula of Michigan through the summer and fall and returning home for the winter months. Many of the workers now prefer to stay in the Northern States throughout the year in order to stabilize employment and family life.

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The Rural Manpower Center was granted $90,420 to develop information on the problems many of the migrant families face in adjusting to new communities, different climate, and an unfamiliar way of life. The research results will form the basis for policy and programs to be developed for job retraining, placement, and other services needed to smooth the transition of the migrants to community life in their new surroundings.

ES AND HYGRADE MASS LAYOFF

On May 23, the Hygrade Food Products Corporation in Indianapolis announced the closing of its plant--a move affecting some 2,500 workers. No actual layoff took place before August 21, when the contractual agreement requiring 90 days termination of employment notice expired. In the interim, a small number of employees left the company, but the great bulk of workers remained on the job.

Since the shutdown was made known, the Indiana Employment Security Division has worked closely with the company and the union to develop a comprehensive plan for helping Hygrade's employees find new jobs. The agency has been interviewing, testing, and counseling workers at the plant site. This was done to obtain a detailed knowledge of each worker's occupational characteristics, job placement potential, and his needs, if any, to improve employability. Many of the workers have shown interest in retraining and in relocating.

A training program under the Manpower Development and Training Act recently was approved and funded to help meet training needs of these workers. This multi-occupational project will provide training for about 300 workers. Additional projects will be proposed as needs become apparent.

UNDER SECRETARY OF LABOR HONORED

On June 25, California's Spanish-speaking people conferred their "Most Distinguished Citizen Award" on Under Secretary of Labor John F. Henning. The award was made by the Mexican-American Political Association at its 4th Annual Meeting in Fresno. Only one other person has received this award, and the Under Secretary was cited for "his efforts and labors on our people's behalf dating back for more than 20 years. . . "

NEW FILM ON OLDER WORKERS

THE WISE YEARS WASTED is the title of a 26-minute, 16mm. documentary film produced by the National Council on Aging under a Department of Labor grant. Narrated by Chet Huntley, the film depicts various approaches to the problem of job placement of older workers as demonstrated by the NCOA projects in six communities. Arrangements for securing the film may be made through NCOA, 49 West 45th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036.

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Key punch operator being trained on the job.

Urban League Upgrades Negro Workers

ADOLPH HOLMES

The great satisfaction to be derived from passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 is modified by our knowledge that—while the legal underbrush has to a considerable extent been cleared away, and real progress has been made in employment through voluntary compliance by business and industry in many quarters—the lives of individual Negroes still remain materially unchanged. The situation in all its implications for the total community is growing in urgency.

Today, 1 year after the effective date of title VII, the Equal Employment Opportunity section, there is still widespread racial segregation and discrimination, which lead to both unemployment and underemployment of Negroes; advances in technology continue to reduce opportunities for unskilled and semiskilled workers; and failure in equality of education continue to depress the Negro's potential in the employment market. Negroes, who constitute 11 percent of the Nation's labor force, still constitute more than 20 percent of the Nation's unemployed, and the average Negro male with 16 or more years of school earns an annual income less than that earned by a white male with 10 years of school.

There is no major city in the United States in which a severe economic depression does not exist in the Negro community. The national unemployment rate is in the vicinity of 4 percent, but the Brenner Census showed that in South Los Angeles (which includes Watts) it is 13 percent, and in Negro communities at points throughout the country, the unemployment rate runs as high as 20 percent. The Negro citizen, particularly in the urban ghetto, has seen little progress since 1954, when the Civil Rights Revolution began. Negro teenagers are among the Nation's most critical employment and unemployment problems with an unemployment rate more than three times the national average. There is no single, simple, quick and easy solution for the Negro's economic problems despite the fact that one of the most basic and pressing problems confronting the shapers of public policy is the need for the efficient use and development of the Nation's human resources.

Since its inception over 50 years ago, the National Urban League has applied its professional know-how in the development of equal employment opportunity for minority citizens. At present, its program of Job Development and Employment is recognized across the Nation as a major contributor to the reduction of the economic lag confronting the Negro citizen.

It has long been the Urban League's contention that approximately 60 percent of the minority group work population would require special effort and consideration for reclamation in the job market. In addition, the National Urban League concurs in the conclusion of the Department of Labor's

Adolph Holmes is Associate Director for Economic Development and Employment, National Urban League.

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Employment Service Task Force that no arbitrary limits should be placed upon the classes of clientele to be served. Given the dynamic characteristics of the job market today, any rigid definition of jurisdiction would impair the effectiveness of our efforts and would deny aid to workers and employers who cannot be adequately served if there are arbitrary limits to our interest.

Five-Part Program

At present, the Urban League's Job Development and Employment Program consists of five components aimed at diverse facets of the problem: the National Skills Bank, the Secretarial Training Program; the Labor Education and Advancement Program (LEAP); the Summer Fellowship Program; and the On-the-Job Training Project.

The National Skills Bank, established and conducted in cooperation with business, labor, lay citizens, and educational institutions, has successfully increased job oportunities for skilled underemployed, underutilized and unemployed Negroes in 59 Urban League cities throughout the country. A total of 33,692 persons have been registered and more than 5,320 placed at all skill levels, ranging from the professional to the unclassified.

In Essex County, N.J., for example, where 1,200 Negroes have been placed in new jobs, the Skills Bank serves more than 500 firms in the area, and places about a third of its applicants. As a result, the total annual income of the Negro community in Essex County has risen by over $2 million.

The National Urban League is in the second year of its Secretarial Training Program in New York City. This year 50 Negro and other minority group young women will attend the Borough of Manhattan College where they will receive intensive professional instruction in stenography, typing, business, and other secretarial skills. This program was conceived by Malcolm Andresen, National Urban League Board Member, in response to Whitney M. Young, Jr.'s, call for a domestic Marshall plan.

Young women in the Secretarial Training Program will study full time for 10 weeks during the summer of 1966. At the end of this period, it is expected that they will have qualified for employment with one of the sponsoring companies. When placed, they will continue in a part-time, work-study program, attending classes 2 nights per week until March 1967.

In its first year, 40 candidates successfully completed the Secretarial Training Program, enrolled both in the Katherine Gibbs Secretarial School and the Borough of Manhattan Community College. The IPAT Culture Fair Test and the DAT Language Usage Test were used to determine general qualifications and aptitude; in addition, candidates were interviewed by personnel representatives of the sponsoring companies and the program Director.

Seventy percent of the first year's graduates had no work experience prior to training. Sixty percent of the graduates are now earning between $57.50 and $80 per week; 40 percent between $81 and $100 per week. Including those who had never been employed previously, the average weekly income of the 40 young women was $21.66 prior to training and is now $78.22.

Similar secretarial training programs are under way, under Urban League auspices, in a number of other Urban League cities.

Project LEAP

The National Urban League's Labor Education and Advancement Program (LEAP) is designed to coordinate and sponsor activities in selected communities to stimulate Negro preparedness to qualify for union membership and to enlist the cooperation of local union leadership in accepting Negro applicants. Simultaneously, project LEAP will seek to assist individuals in making early vocation career choices based upon first-hand knowledge of the prerequisites necessary to enter occupations that are under jurisdiction of the various trade unions. LEAP is predicated upon the knowledge that Negro youths have little realistic information regarding entrance qualifications in the apprenticeable trades, and that employers and trade unions, who are accelerating the pace of recruitment and acceptance of minority groups, do not understand why there is so little response from Negro youth. This is attributable to the lack of information about and understanding of what the requirements are in terms of educational background and skill levels necessary to take advantage of such opportunities. LEAP's purpose is to provide Negroes with preparation for jobs so that they can reach an acceptable level of living.

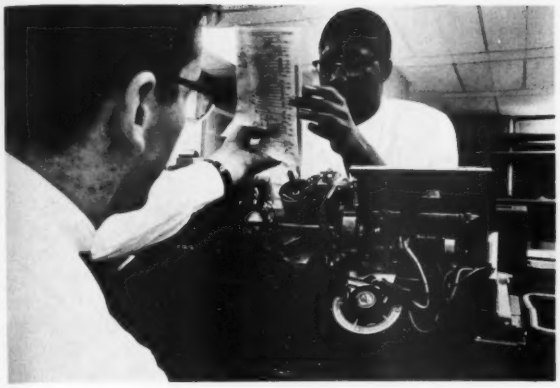
Project LEAP, which began on March 1, 1966, is being funded by the Ford Foundation and the AFL–CIO for a 3-year period. It is operated under, and with the assistance of, the National Urban League's Trade Advisory Council, which is composed mainly of prominent national and international labor officials and key representatives of government and private industry.

Summer Fellowships

The National Urban League's Summer Fellowships Program is in the second year of a planned 5-year program and is supported by grants from the Ford Foundation and participating companies.

This program is designed to permit a group of teachers and administrators from predominantly Negro colleges to spend 6 to 8 weeks in corporate, regional, and local operations of major businesses and industries for the purpose of becoming familiar with their methods, procedures, problems, and operating practices in order that they may better prepare their students for competition with other Americans. Concentration upon predominantly Negro colleges is predicated upon the fact that 70 percent of Negro college students continue to receive their education in the 100 such colleges.

A review of the bulletins from many of these colleges and universities, as well as discussion with the college recruiters from the business community, suggested that there was



On-the-job trainee at IBM.

A young engineer learns the ropes.

a need on the part of faculty members and administrators for more accurate information about the current and projected manpower needs of the American economy. Moreover it was determined that the prevailing lack of understanding about the true needs of American industry had a serious impact on curricular offerings, often restricting them to traditional academic content, often unrelated to today's manpower needs. As a result, many college-trained Negro youths were being directed towards careers traditionally open to Negroes and were, therefore, being prevented from entering the mainstream of American economic life.

This program was funded by the Ford Foundation in April of 1965 and 11 candidates were placed with 10 companies during the summer of 1965. Fifty candidates have been placed for the summer of 1966, and it is anticipated that during the 5-year period, some 400 to 450 representatives from Negro colleges will have been involved in the program.

Industrial participants in the program are asked to cooperate in two ways. First, to provide college representatives an opportunity to visit and participate personally in programs and situations that will permit them to "go behind the scenes" of the operations in order to review with management personnel a great variety of experiences, materials, and processes. It is essential that they be able to move about from plant to plant, office to office, and may, where relevant, visit and work with some of the people who service the industry—advertisers, wholesale outlets, shippers, and handlers, etc. Second, working with project staff, each cooperating firm is asked to develop a special assignment or project for the faculty member, taking into consideration several factors relating to the faculty member: (1) his background in education and work experience; (2) his responsibilities on campus; (3) the uses he can make of this experience when he returns to the campus; and (4) his personal interests.

As a result of the Urban League's experience with its National Skills Bank, it was clear that additional programs were needed to meet the needs of these minority workers who required special effort and consideration for reclamation in the job market. A partial solution was found in the provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act (Public Law 87–415) under which the Urban League's On-the-Job Training Program was established in December 1964, with a goal of training or retraining over 6,000 workers. By the end of 1965, 25 Urban League affiliates had placed 1,198 trainees in new and rewarding positions, and 13 additional League affiliates had submitted proposals that raised the Urban League goal to 8,000 trainees. As of April 30, 1966, OJT programs were operational in 32 cities, with 15 additional proposals pending, and the estimated goal had been raised to 11,606.

The Urban League's OJT program in Pittsburgh is a good example of results. Earnings of the first 104 individuals trained and placed in Pittsburgh went from an average of $18 per week before OJT to $62 per week after OJT; and from $936 per annum to $3,224 per annum. A majority were in the generally considered "hard to place" category.

Most of the training placements in Pittsburgh were made with medium-size and small business or industrial operations—those employing 50 or fewer workers. Many of the larger concerns had their own training programs and apparently preferred to steer clear of government programs. Urban League representatives administering the program talked to employers in terms of training for retention and assimilation into the existing work force. Applicants were individually interviewed and tested with some form of aptitude, dexterity, or comprehensive examinations. Forms of the Wonderlic, Otis, and Minnesota Clerical were used. A minimum of two and a maximum of three applications were referred to an employer for consideration.

Of the first 47 companies approached, 37 responded with requests for immediate followup; the net result was 31 training opportunities established. At no point in the operation were substitutions in contracts made. Twenty-three of the jobs in which trainees were placed were apprenticeable occupations, and the Pittsburgh Urban League experienced no diffi-

culty in securing the agreement of both the employer and the labor union to place the trainee in the apprenticeable program as soon as he completed his preapprentice training. It is the considered opinion of the Urban League that the OJT program offers an effective means of making disadvantaged individuals productive members of society in a relatively short time and at a moderate training cost.

Based on its experience, the Urban League hopes for a further expansion of the program through the development of continuing related instruction following job placement and carried out at the job site. The Urban League further believes that the OJT program would be further strengthened if the Manpower Development and Training Act were revised in the following particulars:

(1) Further minimizing of the cost to employers, which would stimulate still greater participation of employers;

(2) Reduction in the voluminous paper work and detailed reporting procedures required of employers;

(3) Making promotional funds allowable under the Act in order to permit a broader dissemination of the manpower development goals;

(4) Extension of prime contracts to a minimum of 2 years instead of the current limit of 1 year, to obviate the present difficulty in negotiating subcontracts within the first few months of the existing contract;

(5) Introduction of a Federal tax credit for business and industry as a further inducement to investment in human capital.

In addition, the Urban League stands firmly behind those recommendations embodied in the report of the White House Conference on Civil Rights: (1) attainment and maintenance of a full employment economy; (2) development of a comprehensive human resource plan; (3) development of more and better job opportunities in both the private and public sectors; (4) elimination of discrimination in jobs in both the private and public sectors; (5) expansion of training programs and supportive services to provide Negroes with the skills, educational attainment, and other characteristics needed to qualify and successfully compete for the increasingly complex jobs of today's economy; (6) development of an extensive youth program for its impact on the effects of juvenile delinquency and other symptoms of social and economic deprivation; and (7) development of a program to strengthen income maintenance and labor standards programs which currently do not provide adequate protection for some important occupations and industries in which Negroes tend to be employed.

Finally, in its search for solutions to the entire complex of problems which afflict the lives of Negroes in America today, the National Urban League is fully committed to building the social, educational and economic institutions, both public and private, within the ghetto that are the essential devices for bringing the ghetto population into a meaningful relationship with the mainstream of the entire society.

PLACEMENT AND COUNSELING

(*Continued from page 6*)

Much work remains to be done in developing effective and professionally oriented placement operations at the predominantly Negro colleges. An equally important task—and challenge—is the job of conveying convincing information to Negro youngsters, their parents, and their teachers, about the existence and availability of new career opportunities. It is important that both these tasks be vigorously carried out in order that a beneficial impact is soon made on the large number of minority group young people attending the predominantly Negro colleges, a group that has the advantage of having sought and received higher education. The more these young men and women receive appropriate career counseling during their college years and are enabled to utilize their talents properly, the less will be our Nation's shortage of trained manpower.

PROJECT UPLIFT

(*Continued from page 20*)

grade reading level was raised from 4.9 to 7.3. This 2.4 grade level increase was accomplished in an average of 201 instructional hours.

Response to vocational training was measured only in terms of whether the trainee was employed in a training-related vocation after graduation. From a followup study in the fall of 1965, it was learned that 41 percent were employed in training-related jobs, 45 percent were employed in nontraining related jobs, and 14 percent were unemployed or information on their status was unavailable. A second survey of graduates is being made at this time. When complete, it should reflect significant gains in the number employed in training-related jobs.

A followup of the progress made by many of the graduates in their training-related jobs proved to be extremely rewarding. One case history revealed the following: Oscar J., a 31-year-old resident of northern Guilford County, was a share-crop tenant farmer prior to enrollment. During the winter season, he had worked occasionally as a fork-lift operator. At the time of his enrollment in Project Uplift, he had been unemployed for 18 weeks and was facing a serious problem in providing for his wife and four children. Since he had completed only six grades of school, and was illiterate, he found it difficult to secure work during the winter months. He attended the project for 95 of the 99 class days as a trainee in the bricklaying class. He was given 3 hours of basic education daily in combination with his 5 hours of masonry instruction. After 20 weeks of training, he functioned at the second grade level in reading and the sixth grade level in arithmetic. At graduation in June, he was placed on a job as a brick mason with a construction firm at an hourly rate of $1.75. After 10 months of employment, he is now making over $3 an hour.

Another example of a successful graduate is Nellie B., a resident of rural Stokes County, just north of

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Buffet table prepared by students.

Atlantic City Trains Cooks

ELIHU JOSEPH

It has been said that too many cooks may spoil the broth, but this was not true at a nationally known restaurant in Atlantic City, N.J., where 10 noted chefs conveyed their gastronomic know-how to 118 unemployed workers enrolled under a Manpower Development and Training program that attracted wide attention.

In the upper and lower-level kitchens, as well as in the spacious basement storerooms of the restaurant, the 30 women and 88 men were taught how to please the palates of the thousands who come to conventions or vacation in this resort city each year.

Long a seasonal resort area, Atlantic City is now endeavoring to develop facilities that would attract conventions and other year-round activities. Because of the seasonal nature of its main industry, the area has a high incidence of unemployment between Labor Day and Memorial Day. Consequently, there was little difficulty in recruiting suitable applicants for the training program.

Impetus for the program was provided last September, when a survey of 38 restaurants in the resort area indicated anticipated need for at least 171 cooks during the next 12 months. At that time, nine of the owners told the local employment office manager and members of the Atlantic County Manpower Advisory Committee they could use at least 20 experienced cooks if applicants were available.

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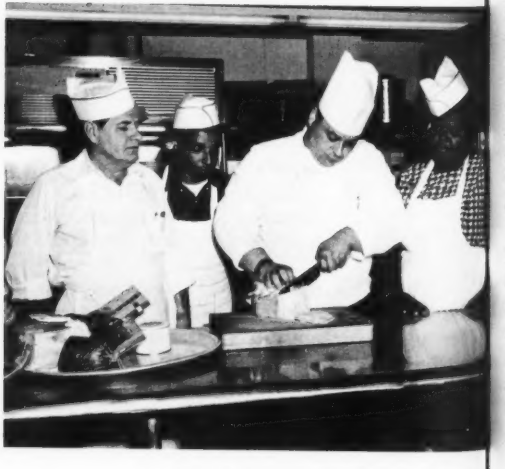
(Top) Vegetables. (Center) Hors d'oeuvres. (Bottom) Sandwiches and cold meats.

(Top) Faculty at lunch. At rear left is William Kaylakie, Supervisor of program. (Center) Roasts. (Bottom) Pastries.



The federally financed course started with 150 trainees, selected from approximately 200 unemployed applicants who were interviewed and screened at the Atlantic City office of the New Jersey State Employment Service. Four were dropped from the course and 28 with previous cooking experience were enticed by offers of permanent jobs at good salaries. Of the remaining 118 students, about half were minority group members.

For 24 weeks, starting January 10, 1966, the students learned how to prepare a wide variety of plain and fancy dishes, the kind that have brought fame to many of the leading restaurants and throughout the world.

Directly responsible for providing instruction were 10 chefs recruited by William Kaylakie, supervisor of the school and an officer of Local 508, Hotel, Motel, Club and Restaurant Union, AFL–CIO. Most of the chefs had retired but Mr. Kaylakie had little difficulty transmitting his enthusiasm and getting them to forego their leisure for the 24-week course. Several of them once presided over the kitchens of noted restaurants in Europe and Asia as well as in this country. The 10 instructor-chefs had a total of 272 years of experience in the art of cooking.

Total cost of the program was estimated at $343,088. Of this sum, $145,022 was allocated for instructional services. This included $48,450 for salaries and $41,424 for food and other supplies. The cost for the rental of space and the use of equipment at the restaurant was estimated at $43,200. Of the $198,066 allocated for trainee allowances, $10,566 was set aside for transportation costs of out-of-town students, many of whom traveled each day from distant communities. Some came from Cape May, about 45 miles from Atlantic City.

Original cost of food needed for the 120-day course was estimated at $40,500, based on $2.25 per day for 150 trainees, with a certain proportion allowed for waste and spoilage. Actually, the cost was kept down to 52 cents per trainee per day during the first month, when the more simple dishes were prepared.

This figure rose gradually each month as the students were taught how to prepare progressively more expensive dishes.

The training outlined for the course was prepared with the help of the Atlantic County Board for Vocational Education. Andrew Young, coordinator of apprentice training for the vocational schools, was designated as project consultant. An advisory committee from the resort's hotel and restaurant industry was appointed to help screen prospective trainees and evaluate progress of the program.

Prior to the opening of the course, the 10 chefs attended a 3-day teaching session. The trainees then spent 2 weeks in classroom activities, learning how to organize their daily programs and use the variety of kitchen equipment they would need.

Instruction began at 7 a.m. and continued until 11 or 11:30, when the students stopped for lunch, then resumed until 1:30 or 2 p.m. The period immediately after lunch was spent in removing all traces of materials used during the training session and leaving all equipment in spic and span condition so that the regular kitchen staff could take over with a minimum of disturbance to customary routines.

Considerable emphasis was placed on safety considerations and personal appearance. Students were given a list of precautionary measures that should be followed by workers in all parts of the restaurant. This list covered all activities, starting with the receipt and storage of foods, through their preparation and, finally, disposal of refuse. Emphasis was placed on fire prevention and the avoidance of specific types of accidents.

When full-scale preparation of foods got underway, a problem arose as to the disposal of surpluses. Since MDTA regulations prohibit the sale of prepared foods at a profit, Mr. Kaylakie arranged with Atlantic City authorities to sell surplus foods at cost for consumption by workhouse inmates. Each day a workhouse truck rolled up to the restaurant and left with a load of delicious meals for the city's incarcerated inhabitants.

The spirit and motivation of the trainees were admirable. Several had worked in kitchens of boardwalk eating establishments, but all agreed that the new techniques and skills they acquired will provide new opportuni-

(*Continued on page 47*)

Walter B. had two strikes against him when it came to getting a job. He was 62 years old and a Negro. He had been a short order cook in various New York City "beaneries" all his life, had saved some of his earnings and, when the restaurant he had worked in for 10 years went out of business a couple of years ago, he had retired to a tiny home in Pleasantville, just outside Atlantic City.

A spry little man, the prospect of "just sitting around and vegetating" did not appeal to him. He tried to obtain work but could find nothing other than an occasional job as a handyman. Then he read about the proposed school for cooks in the local paper and decided to apply. Impressed with his sincerity, the local office counselor accepted Walter's application.

Initially assigned to storekeeping duties, he distributed supplies and equipment to the students, keeping close track of hundreds of food and other items used each day. He hoped for a similar job in a private club when the course was completed.

The Negro Worker in the Chicago Job Market*

HAROLD BARON
and BENNET HYMER

Unlike other ethnic groups who have been migrants to the Northern city, Negroes have not been allowed to assimilate into all layers of either the job market or the overall socioeconomic structure. Even today, in a large urban job market such as Chicago, Negroes are still systematically restricted in both the skills they may acquire and the extent to which they may utilize any given level of skills. Chicago's job market, like those in other large Northern cities, has confined the Negro to a second-class status. This second-class status in the job market has, in turn, formed a major part of the Negro's subordination within the total society.

The second-class status of the Negro worker in the Chicago job market is indicated by the persistence of differential in earnings, occupation, training, and employment between whites and Negroes. These differentials originated in 1915 when Negroes became a significant group in the labor force as they began to be used to fill the job shortages created by World War I. Since then, racial differentials have become distinct and marked properties of the structure of the Chicago market.

The experience of the Negro worker in Chicago is fairly representative of other Northern and Western metropolitan job markets. The pattern of Negro participation in a large urban area where there is a sizable Negro labor force, generally consists of the following elements:

- Islands of Negro poverty amidst seas of white affluence; about 40 percent of the Negro population living in the inner city makes up an urban peasantry whose incomes are barely above the subsistence level and usually require subsidization through welfare payments.
- Negro unemployment rates double or more those for whites either by age, level of education, or occupation.
- Over-representation of the Negro labor force in jobs at the bottom of the occupational ladder and under-representation in jobs at the top; particularly jobs and occupations, usually the dirty and low paying ones, being considered as "Negro jobs."
- Negro earnings consistently below those for whites even when similar groups of workers—Negroes and whites of the same age, occupation, and level of education—are compared.

The existence of differentials in job market performance between whites and Negroes is well known to both employment and race relations specialists. Yet, there is no satisfactory account of the perpetuation of the Negro's subordinate status. Most apologists try to relate lower Negro incomes and higher rates of Negro unemployment to racial differences in education and occupation between the two labor forces. Educational and occupational differences, however, can explain income and employment differentials only at a particular point in time, and at that, only partially. These differences do not account for the lower Negro incomes at every educational level and within every occupation. Nor do they explain other phenomena, such as why unskilled Negroes have more difficulty finding employment than unskilled whites, even though the unskilled Negro may have had more formal education, as is the case in Chicago. More important, these differences do not explain why Negroes have been continually entering the labor force less well-prepared than whites and therefore more likely to end up in the unskilled job categories.

If we apply recent findings in the fields of race relations and the social sciences, we can relate the differentials between white and Negro workers to the very structure of the large urban job market—in particular to the processes by which the labor force is distributed to the available number of employment opportunities, and the available number of jobs is distributed among the existing supply of workers. This is best visualized by considering that the structure of the job market is racially dual, i.e., the job market consists of two sectors, one for white workers and one for Negro workers.

More specifically, a racially-dual

**This article is an abridgment of a piece that will appear in a paperback on the NEGRO AND AMERICAN LABOR, edited by Julius Jacobson and to be published by Anchor Books in the winter of 1967. The supportive data can be found there.*

Harold Baron and Bennet Hymer are members of the Research Department, Chicago Urban League.

structure means that there exist side by side a primary metropolitan job market in which firms recruit white workers and white workers look for jobs, and a smaller secondary market in which firms recruit Negro workers and Negro workers look for jobs. (In Chicago, the Negro job market is approximately one-seventh the size of the white job market.) For both the white and Negro sectors of the job market there are distinct demand and supply pressures determining earnings and occupational distribution, as well as separate institutions and procedures for the recruitment, hiring, training, and promotion of workers.

Racial dualism in the Chicago market is visible in many dimensions—by firm, by departments within the firm, by industry, by occupation, and by geographical area. In general, Negro workers are hired by certain industries and by particular firms within these industries. Within all industries, including government service, there is unmistakable evidence of occupational ceilings for Negroes. Within establishments that hire both white and Negroes, Negro workers are usually placed in particular job classifications and production units. A good rule of thumb is that the lower the pay, or the more disagreeable and dirty the job, the greater the chance of finding a high proportion of Negroes.

In-Plant Segregation

In firms that are integrated by occupation, departments within an occupation will frequently be divided along racial lines. Negroes might be concentrated in foundries and heat-treating shops. Within the same operation, there may be occupational segregation—the laborers will be Negro and the machine operators white. In other cases, the machine operators will be Negro, and the higher-paid mechanics, white. A plant might have an integrated semiskilled work force with segregation of its craftsmen and lower-level supervisory employees, even though most of these jobs are filled by intraplant promotion. In general, the lower the position on the occupational scale, the greater the chance that there will be integration for a particular job classification.

In response to this segregated job pattern, whites and Negroes use separate patterns of jobseeking. Whites do not seek employment with firms that they identify as being totally in the Negro job market, nor do they seek jobs that they identify as being "Negro jobs." In firms which have integration among their unskilled or semiskilled workers, it is only the white workers in these categories who operate with the expectation that they will be chosen for on-the-job training or considered for promotion.

Negroes, on the other hand, seek jobs in what they consider to be the Negro job market. Certain firms are identified as employing Negroes, e.g., in Chicago, some of the mail order houses and the post office; or certain jobs, such as laborer or foundry worker, are identified as being Negro jobs. The Negro jobseeker expects automatic rebuff outside the identified Negro job market, and he accordingly limits his search to the places where he knows that he has some chance of success. Most jobs in the white job market are never sought by Negroes.

These separate jobseeking patterns are reinforced by several practices. Many firms fill vacancies by word of mouth to friends and relatives of the present work force. Job market intermediaries—the Illinois State Employment Service, some 500 private employment agencies, and vocational counselors—usually operate on the basis of the dual job market. Negro youngsters in school are encouraged to seek careers in occupations that are traditionally Negro jobs. Nonwhite jobseekers are counseled to apply for positions within the Negro job market. Both public and private employment services, in spite of legal prohibitions, tend to respect the racial lines of the job market in their referrals.

To understand fully the distribution of jobs between whites and Negroes, the racially dual job market structure must be viewed in dynamic terms. At any particular moment the usual procedure for allocating jobs is to give prior choice to the white labor force. Applied over time, this means that the Negro labor force serves as a surplus labor pool drawn upon when there are shortages of white labor, or to fill jobs that have become traditionally Negro jobs.

During periods of a tight job market, certain jobs will transfer either partially or fully from the white to the Negro sector. Firms will recruit Negro workers when they cannot find enough white labor. Also, as the size of the Negro population and its purchasing power increase, certain jobs open up in servicing the Negro community. For many firms, it is good business to employ Negroes to handle the Negro share of its market. In the case of the professions—dentists, lawyers, doctors, etc.—there is a concomitant growth in demand for services.

Three Groups

At any particular moment, the Negro labor force may be divided into three groups. First, there is a service sector—approximately 10 percent of the total Negro labor force—selling goods and services to the Negro community and employed by both white and Negro-owned firms specialized to that market. Second, there is a standard sector of skilled and semiskilled workers—approximately 50 percent of the total labor force—employed in situations similar to those enjoyed by most white workers. The size of this sector represents the extent of the occupational breakthroughs during past periods when there were shortages of white workers. Third, there is a surplus sector of low-wage unskilled workers—approximately 40 percent of the total labor force—that is without work, or tenuously employed in low-paying marginal jobs.

In the past 25 years, the number of Negro workers who have left the surplus sector has increased considerably. However, because of the entry of indigenous teenagers and the migration of southern Negroes, this sector still represents an important segment of the total Negro labor force. Ordinarily, Negro workers in the surplus sector should represent a

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potential pool of labor available to employers for expansion of their work force. However, unlike the white urban surplus labor pools of past eras, most Negro workers in the surplus sector lack even the basic skills and training required by modern day technology.

The racial division of the Chicago job market is only one form of the more general racial dualism that characterizes the total urban socioeconomic structure. If we include the racial dualism in housing and education, together with the ideology of racism and the lack of proportionate Negro political power, we have an effective complex of interrelated and mutually supportive institutions. These institutions constitute the system of Northern *de facto* segregation. Within this system, racial distinctions created in any institutional area operate as effective barriers supporting segregation and status differentiation in an adjoining area. Dualism in the job market is made all the more effective as a means of keeping the Negro in a subordinate position by the existence of segregation in housing and education.

Under the system of northern racism, Negroes are discriminated against through both overt and indirect, subtle procedures. Within the job market, exclusion of Negroes occurs through a variety of means. Sometimes there is a deliberate intent to exclude Negroes. Prejudiced foremen will refuse to hire Negroes even though it may be management's policy to do so. Ambiguous hiring criteria e.g., appearance, dress, speech, may be rigidly applied for Negroes and loosely for whites. In other cases, job requirements, e.g., high school diplomas or place of residence, will screen out more Negroes than whites, or testing procedures will contain cultural biases against low-income, nonmiddle-class applicants. Exclusion may also result from the firm's adhering to past operating procedures that are no longer realistic, e.g., shopping in the white job market only by not advertising in Negro newspapers or informing Negro placement agencies of vacancies. Also firms may not have Negroes employed in particular job categories because of discrimination in apprenticeship training or union entry.

Outside the job market, housing segregation, school segregation, and the ideology of racism help to maintain the racially dual employment structure. Housing segregation confines Negroes to certain geographical areas of the job market. Most new jobs in Chicago are located in areas that are remote from the Negro ghetto, and therefore out of reach for Negro workers. Also, the residential remoteness of Negroes from new jobs in growing industries reinforces the pattern of hiring Negroes in declining industries. Inferior segregated schools, like those in Chicago, mean that the Negro pupil is less likely to graduate, less likely to score well on a placement test, and is less prepared to acquire further skills on a job. The situation was recently summed up in the quip, "Personnel managers need no longer exercise prejudicial decisions in job placement; the education system in Chicago screens the Negroes for them." Finally, the ideology of racism rationalizes acts of discrimination and the exclusion of Negroes.

This framework of a racially dual job market structure enables us to assess the joint effects of the 5-year-long boom and recent changes in public and private policies. In the past, improvement in the statuts of the Negro worker has generally occurred during periods of a tight job market, when firms step up their recruitment of Negro workers because they cannot find enough white labor. During these periods, firms are also more likely to approve and engage in programs of assistance to the Negro worker.

Today's Picture

Most of the programs and policies now in operation affect only the demand side of the job market. They are designed principally to speed up the deployment of Negro workers to the job vacancies currently existing. Most probably, the removal of discriminatory barriers that is now in process will be only partial because of two factors. First, if the experience of the past is relevant, the tight job market will not last long enough to give management the necessary elbow room for complete integration. Second, the extent to which a tightening of the job market facilities improvement in the status of nonwhite workers is usually limited because conditions on the supply side—school and housing segregation—remain relatively stationary. In the current situation, there are even cases of excess demand for Negro labor, i.e., firms cannot find enough Negro workers because the supply side of the Negro job market has not caught up with the demand. It should also be noted that many employers often practice tokenism, i.e., hiring a few Negroes for carefully selected positions.

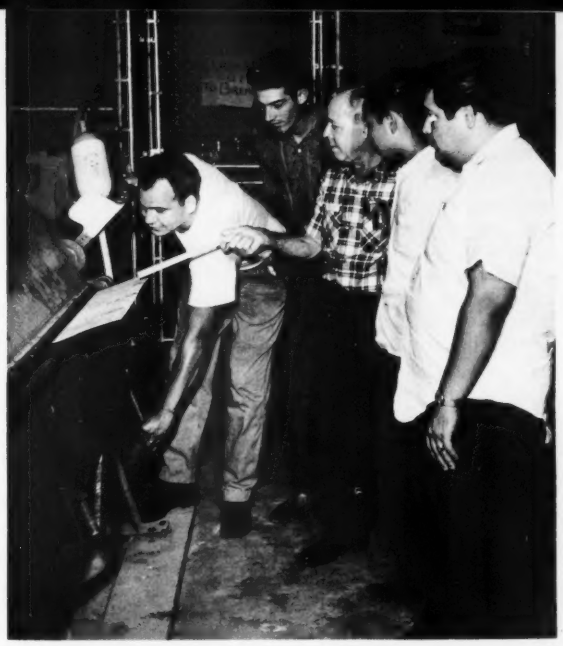
For racial differentials to be fully eliminated, there must be both short- and long-run programing. Short-run programing operates mainly through the demand side of the job market. It concentrates on speeding up the deployment of Negro workers to the jobs that have opened up. This occurs by retraining workers, by increasing the flow of information within the Negro job market, or by having employers adopt more realistic hiring and testing procedures that do not exclude proportionately more Negroes.

Long-run solutions mostly involve the upgrading of Negro education, both in quantity and quality, to the levels enjoyed by whites, the removal of housing segregation, and the effective enforcement of existing antidiscrimination laws and executive orders. In effect, long-run programs cover situations where the job market is not necessarily tight and where there is no automatic increase in demand for Negro workers.

The success of both types of programing depends upon the concerted action and cooperation of all important groups that operate in the job market—employers, unions, placement agencies, and government. The individual decision-making unit, by itself, cannot produce major changes in the institutional complex that now segregates the job market. At best, its actions produce only marginal adjustment.

The Latin American Is Finding His Place

LINDA C. DUFFIELD



Fellow Mexican-American classmates observe as an MDTA student tries out a new crimping and bending machine. The instructor is pointing out the correct technique in sheet metal work and assembly, aircraft.

Located not far from the Mexican border area of Texas, San Antonio is by origin and tradition a bilingual city. Of the 780,000 metropolitan population, some 37.4 percent are of Spanish, Indian, or Mexican descent.

Unlike many cities where the Latin-American populace is transient, in San Antonio, this group, for the most part, is made up of residents who are a permanent and vital part of the work force. Some of the first settlers in the region came from Mexico to establish homes and businesses on the "frontier." Consequently, San Antonio is characterized by an employer group composed of representatives from both Latin and Anglo-Saxon backgrounds.

For the San Antonio Employment Service, this presents a unique situation. In many geographical areas, the Spanish-speaking minority are faced with problems simply because they are transitory and speak a "foreign" language. However, in San Antonio, where a good percentage of the business and professional firms cater primarily to the Latin-American public, the bilingual employee can be a considerable asset.

Employer acceptance of the minority group and placement service rendered to them by the Texas Employment Commission offices in San Antonio are graphically illustrated by a survey conducted in February 1966. Although no records were maintained concerning the race or national origins of applicants during the period, a tabulation of 2,455 placements indicated that 55.8 percent had Spanish surnames. Twenty-four percent of the professional, managerial, and technical placements were apparently Latin-American, and more than 50 percent of clerical, sales, and skilled hires were of this category.

Language differences have been a factor in limiting employment opportunities for the Latin-American. While the truly bilingual person often has a distinct advantage, many San Antonio citizens, for whom Spanish is the first language, find definite obstacles when seeking employment. For instance, a mature Latin-American man who learned English late in life may have difficulty following instructions given by a foreman who speaks no Spanish. By the same token, he may also have trouble asking questions. Many of this minority group are self-conscious about their poor English and are reluctant to show their limited command of the language.

The local offices of the Texas Employment Commission have been able to alleviate some of these difficulties through direct contact with employers. Where an employer has rarely used Latin-American workers for one reason or another, the interviewer often will discuss with him individual applicants on the basis of their skill and experience. An especially well qualified applicant can be placed through job development. Recently, the qualifications of an attractive young Spanish-speaking secretary who possessed exceptional stenographic skills were discussed

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with a member of a leading law firm in San Antonio. An interview resulted from the contact, and the applicant was placed with the attorney at a very acceptable rate of pay. The employer later commented that he had never before hired a Latin-American, but that she had become one of his most valuable employees.

The new Civil Rights law has helped to make employers aware of a potential employee source that they may not have considered before. Many employers who had traditionally ignored the Latin-Americans have begun to take a new look at the situation. A number of firms have broadened their screening procedures to include qualified applicants from minority groups.

By far the most serious problem of this major minority group in San Antonio, however, is the lack of adequate education and training. Much of this segment of the population is economically depressed, and nearly 20 percent of them are illiterate, according to updated figures of the 1960 U.S. census. Most families, often quite large, cannot afford college for their children, even if they finished high school, which many do not. Nurtured for several hundred years in a basically European-influenced environment, the Mexican culture from which most of the immigrants have come subscribes to the theory of "education for the chosen few." Since first and second generation Mexican parents often cannot see the the value of schooling, it is not unusual to find youngsters with only a third- or fourth-grade education entering the work force.

Therefore, when such an applicant, who has a limited educational background, perhaps poor command of English, and little or no significant work history, comes to the Texas Employment Commission, the office staff is faced with the problem of how to serve this individual best. Frequently, counseling is indicated. Obviously, such an applicant is not ready for entry into a work area above the most menial tasks, even though his potential may far exceed his present capabilities. It is the counselor's job to ascertain exactly what his current capabilities are and what he could achieve under different circumstances.

The counselor must keep in mind that the applicant's isolated cultural environment may not have equipped him properly to adjust immediately to changes which may be called for by counseling. One San Antonio counselor encountered a young man from a disadvantaged Latin-American background who had been successfully trained as a barber and subsequently placed in one of the better shops with a predominantly Anglo clientele. He was unable to adjust to the drastic environmental change and left his job to take new employment in a shop which paid a third less but was in an area where he felt socially accepted and "comfortable."

Know the Complete Problem

The counselor must be careful to go as deeply into an applicant's problems as possible, and to beware of encouraging hasty decisions as to the course to be taken. What on the surface may seem to be a clearcut example of something previously encountered may prove to be quite different when the individual is questioned extensively.

For example, a TEC counselor recently worked with an applicant who was sent to him because her general appearance and behavior as noted at the reception point indicated a definite need for counseling. The woman, 29 years of age, was wearing a soiled, faded house dress and rubber thong sandals, and her hair was in large brush rollers. She seemed at first reluctant to speak English, but as the counselor talked with her, she began to converse with relative ease and considerable fluency in English. Encouraged, the counselor arranged for testing and discovered that she had above average intelligence.

As the story emerged during further talks, the counselor learned that the woman was the eldest of a large Latin-American family, and that after completing the ninth grade, she had been forced to quit school to help her mother with the younger children. Resentful, she married at an early age in an attempt to escape the situation. Instead, she soon found herself in similar circumstances, with an uneducated husband and four small children to care for. Thus she had come to the Employment Service to find work of some kind.

Finding that she was ineligible for training under any of the existing TEC programs, the counselor arranged for the applicant to enroll in night classes at a local business school. He talked with her frankly about improving her personal grooming, recommending a local store where she could get suitable clothing at low cost. He even suggested that she enlist the aid of a neighbor in giving herself a home permanent.

The next time the woman visited the local office, staff members were amazed at the change. Not only her appearance but also her outlook had improved, and she no longer felt totally defeated. This applicant has now completed her business course and is successfully employed as a typist with a local firm.

As evidenced in this case, testing can be a valuable aid in counseling, since aptitude test scores can indicate a logical course of action. Unemployed applicants who exhibit aptitudes for a certain kind of work are encouraged to enroll in training classes under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

In San Antonio, institutional training under MDTA has been an important factor in upgrading employability of the Latin-American. The widespread lack of education, which has continually limited advanced training, has been combated with considerable success by use of the Metropolitan Achievement Test as a screening device in place of an arbitrary selection of those who have completed a given number of school grades.

Test administrators in the San Antonio local office have found the MAT to be an excellent device to determine the level at which an applicant is functioning, rather than the level of formal schooling he has attained. Test scores show that many applicants with fourth-grade educations are functioning at a higher level than some with high school education.

Since the initiation of the MDTA

program in San Antonio, approximately 2,425 applicants have been referred for training. About 65 percent of the graduates have been placed in training-related jobs, and an additional 25 percent have found employment in nonrelated fields. Most of the remainder have left the local job market through marriage, relocation, or other circumstances. Very few are unemployed.

Within the past 3 years, classes have been conducted in 25 different occupations, including insurance rate clerk, machinist, electrical appliance repairman, sales clerk, automobile mechanic and body repairman, cook, farmworker, office machine operator, and stenographer, both basic and specialized. Enrollment of Latin-American applicants is high, with a typical class in auto mechanics work showing approximately 80 percent trainees from this group.

Old Jobs May Be Obsolete

Close observation of the applicants receiving training might well reveal a group of jobseekers whose jobs have become obsolete because of automation or plant closings. A 30-year-old Latin-American, who had worked for 8 years as a garment looper with San Antonio's only sweater manufacturer, found himself without a job when the plant shut down in 1962. Married, with three dependents, he had only an 11th grade education and no training or experience in any other type of work. He applied to the Texas Employment Commission and was accepted for MDTA training in television servicing. Upon completion of the 52-week course, he was employed by Goodwill Industries where he is now foreman and instructor. His earning power almost equals that of his previous job, after 8 years' experience.

Another prevalent problem in San Antonio, where the military population is large, is the person who leaves the military service to find that his skills are not significant in the civilian job market.

Such an applicant, who had worked as an aircraft engine mechanic in the Air Force, was unable to find a regular job after leaving the service in 1963. He received MDTA training in auto body repair and was placed with a local automobile dealer at $2.25 per hour, nearly twice the hourly wage he had earned before.

An outstanding example of the benefits of training for the underemployed is the case of a 28-year-old applicant who had been working as a service station attendant at $40 to $45 per week. Through TEC testing, he showed good aptitude for mechanical work and was trained as an automobile mechanic. He was immediately placed with a leading auto firm and currently earns $125 weekly.

Still another applicant came to the Employment Service to try to find a job which would enable him to support his large family better. Thirty-four years old, with seven dependents, he was working as a washing machine repairman at $1.25 an hour. After being trained in television repair, he went to work for a San Antonio dealer at $2 an hour.

Anna Marie Cantu, an MDTA graduate, takes dictation from Gilbert de la Cruz, Placement Supervisor, in the San Antonio Youth Opportunity Center.

One of the most striking MDTA case histories involved a Spanish-speaking applicant who registered for work with the TEC offices in late November 1964. The man had a third-grade education and difficulty in reading English. At 31 years of age and with seven dependents, he had been working for the past several years at a cafe as a dish washer with a top wage of 80 cents an hour. He sought some type of employment that would give him more than just three meals a day for his wife and children.

The man was counseled and given a chance to enter the MDTA Farm Training School that was being conducted at a farm on the outskirts of San Antonio. Although late in entering the course, he lost no time in catching up. At the end of the training period, which had included some basic literacy training, the applicant not only could read a daily newspaper, but his instructor rated him at the head of his class with a final grade of 94.5 percent.

Two days after completion of training, he was hired by the local manager of a nationwide farm equipment company at a starting wage of $250 per month plus paid vacation, sick leave, and company insurance.

In the clerical field, there has been exceptionally good employer response to MDTA students upon completion of the legal stenography training. Almost 70 percent of the last class were placed in jobs approximately a week after their résumés were referred to San Antonio attorneys, many of whom had expressed special interest in applicants who could speak Spanish.

Good Progress

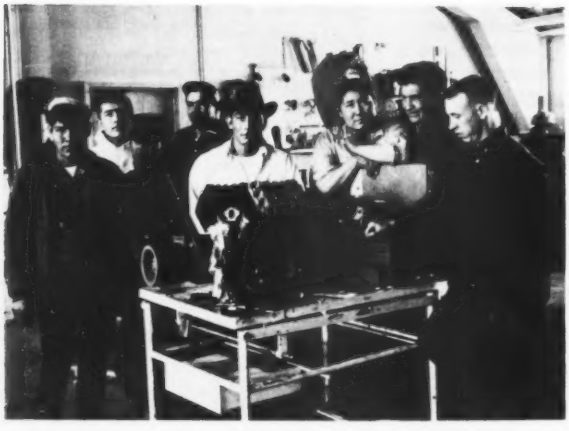
Those who are close to the people see excellent progress made by the Latin-Americans during the past decade. Prospects are bright for the future, as evidenced by increased placement of Spanish-speaking applicants in substantial positions in the community. They appear to be rapidly pulling themselves up from a heritage of deprivation by taking fuller advantage of training and educational possibilities and gaining self-fulfillment through appropriate employment.

Perhaps an important part of the solution to their problems lies within each individual. There is an old Mexican adage that is heard frequently in San Antonio—"Hace mas el que quiere que el que puede," or "You accomplish more if you have the will than if you just have the ability."

MDTA Comes to the Owyhee Reservation

Instructors and students repair a tractor owned by one of the ranchers on the reservation.

Eugene Drake, MDTA instructor (second from left), inspects a horse trailer built by the trainee on the right. Mr. Drake, a Korean veteran, received his college degree from a Utah college under the GI Bill of Rights.



The tractor operator's course in rebuilding an engine.

The Western Shoshone Indian Reservation of Owyhee comprises approximately 290,000 acres straddling the Idaho-Nevada border. Only about 7,000 acres are under irrigation and another 80,000 acres are grazing land. Irrigation was made possible by the Wild Horse Reservoir, but due to lack of development of farm land, much of the available water has been unused.

Approximately 150 families live on the reservation. Some of the workers are employed by the Bureau of Indian Affairs; others engage in farming and stock raising. Their main income, however, has been derived from working as hired hands on the hay and cattle ranches of northern Nevada and southern Idaho.

Even in this remote area, mechanization has been taking its toll and complicated machines have been replacing the sickle, the pitchfork, and the team of horses, but the Indians did not understand these new machines.

Realizing that the Indians were unable to help themselves adapt to these changes, the Tribal Council of the Owyhee Reservation in 1964 sent a letter to the Nevada Employment Service asking, "Can MDTA do anything to help us?" The letter described several problems of the inhabitants of the reservation:

"Although adjacent ranchers reap a good profit, our cattlemen operate at a loss because of a lack of knowledge in breeding, feeding, and marketing."

"Our farmers lose money by having to call a mechanic to travel over 100 miles because they lack the knowledge to make repairs on their machinery."

"Our young men find work on ranches, but they can demand only the lowest wages because they are unskilled in the care and operation of modern equipment."

The Employment Service Representative reasoned that knowledge of up-to-date farming methods and the operation of modern farm and ranch equipment would surely increase the employability and demand for Shoshone Indian workers, and at the same time improve the management and operation of their own farms.

Charles R. Fish is MDTA Coordinator, Nevada State Employment Service. John M. Lindsay is Veterans Employment Representative for Nevada.

The instructor and some class members admire a 350-gallon tank trailer which was designed and built by the trainee in the center.

CHARLES R. FISH
and JOHN M. LINDSAY

With this in mind, the ESR approached the Tribal Council and explained the benefits which could be derived from MDTA training. The Indians agreed to try the training courses, and today they are glad that MDTA came to their reservation.

Two MDTA courses were set up to be conducted on the reservation for farm machinery maintenance (18 weeks for 16 trainees) and farm management (44 weeks for 16 trainees). Energetic support was given by the Elko County School District, a well qualified instructor was obtained, and space was furnished at the Owyhee High School. The instructor soon established rapport with his students. They began to see the program not merely as a source of money from the training allowance, but also as something practical that they could apply to their own farms.

In 1965, a second section of the farm machinery maintenance course began for 16 weeks with 16 trainees. There were three times as many applicants for this course as could be served in the limited training space. Another course on general farm work was also conducted for 20 weeks for 16 trainees.

The ages of the trainees ranged from 35 to 45 years. Their formal education averaged 10 years. Two were unmarried and the others averaged three dependents each. Their individual Shoshone holdings varied from 60 to 160 acres. Approximately half of the trainees derived their income from raising herds of 50 to 200 cattle. Others grew crops of wild hay and alfalfa and raised horses.

In April 1965, the Executive Director of the Nevada Employment Security Department visited the reservation. He attended classes, talked to the trainees, and visited their farms. He saw a cattle squeeze chute, horse trailers, portable gasoline tanks, and other pieces of machinery which the enrollees had designed and built during the course. Some of the remarks he heard were:

(*Continued on page 44*)

An Owyhee Valley rancher, left, rebuilt this bailer in the training class.

This tractor was completely overhauled and painted by the two trainees on the left during the course in farm machinery maintenance.

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The REALITY of Equal Opport in Federal Employ

Open competition for civil service jobs is a fundamental provision of the merit system established by the Civil Service Act of 1883 and administered by the Civil Service Commission for all Federal departments and agencies. Within the last 5 years, however, the "open door" policy has taken on new meaning in the Federal service through specific action to give *reality* to the principle of equal employment opportunity. In this article I will briefly review some of the programs undertaken in three significant areas to make that principle a reality in practice. These three areas involve Federal agency management, the minority groups, and the Federal employment structure.

Federal Agency Management

When President Kennedy created the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity by Executive Order on March 6, 1961, and called upon the then Vice President Johnson to lead the Committee, he directed a shift in emphasis from the mere absence of discrimination to positive action toward achievement of equal opportunity. The Civil Service Commission responded by taking steps to assure reality in management action to promote this objective throughout the Federal service.

The Minority Groups

In the course of these aggressive efforts, the second *unreality* became starkly evident: The program was not sufficiently real to the minority groups we were trying to reach. As a result of generations of discrimination and disadvantage—economic, social, and educational—a majority of them lacked not only the preparation necessary to enter our open door, but also the incentive to obtain it; they saw no reason to learn occupations in which they believed they could never be employed.

This is not to say that no progress was made. On the contrary, we have figures that show impressive gains. For example, between 1962 and 1965 the number of Negroes in Federal employment increased by 15,590—a gain of 5.3 percent, while total Federal employment increased by only 1.6 percent. In June 1965, there were 308,675 Negroes employed by the Federal Government, which is 13.5 percent of the Federal Work

About the

1. **A giant photomultiplier tube designed to detect n Alamos Scientific Laboratory of th**
2. **A chemist at Peoria Utilization Research and Dev studies chemical structure and prop**
3. **A U.S. Air Force digital computer systems analy digital computer**
4. **The chief of Veterans Administration Pharmacy pharmacist delivers a prescrip**
5. **A Veterans Administration supervisory occupationa of daily**

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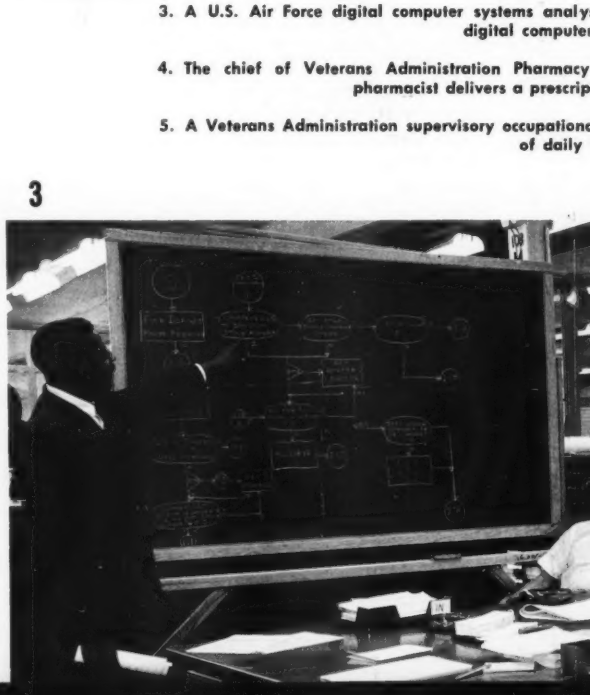

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JOHN W. MACY, JR.

the Photos

tect nuclear explosions in space is evaluated at the Los y of the Atomic Energy Commission.

d Development Division, U.S. Department of Agriculture, d properties of cereal grain proteins.

analyst explains a block diagram to other analysts and nputer programers.

rmacy Service (right) prepares a prescription while a escription to a nursing assistant.

ational therapist retrains a disabled veteran in activities daily living.

force; Negroes constitute about 11 percent of the population.

Gains for other minority groups from 1962 to 1965, as reported for selected geographic areas were as follows:

- Employment of Mexican-Americans in Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, up 4,947 a gain of 14.6 percent;
- Employment of American Indians in Arizona, California, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and South Dakota, up 568, a gain of 6.4 percent;
- Employment of Oriental-Americans in California, Oregon, and Washington, up 324, a gain of 3.5 percent.

In all these States, the increase in total Federal employment over the same period was at or below the national rate of 1.6 percent. The gains were not the result of any special privilege or evasion of merit-system practices. They were the result of genuinely equal *consideration* of minority-group citizens for Federal employment. They speak well for the efforts of Federal agency officials and employees to make equal opportunity a reality.

Nevertheless, improvements such as these are not enough, for while the figures are important and gratifying, they tell only part of the story. A significant fact is that the gains have been made largely in higher grade white-collar employment. Taking

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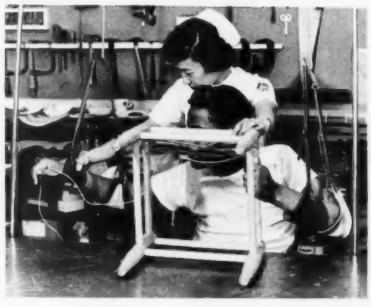

5

Negro employment as an example, from 1961 to 1965 there was a net increase of 50 percent in Classification Act grades GS–5 through 8 ($5,181 to $6,869 per year), nearly 100 percent in grades GS–9 through 11 ($7,479 to $8,961), and 172 percent in grades GS–12 through 18 ($10,619 to $25,382). This is more than four times the growth rate of total employment in each of the grade groupings, and gives striking evidence that there is now no "grade ceiling" on equal opporunity in the Federal Service.

Then why is this not enough? It is not enough because these gains tell only the story of the educated middle-class Negro—a minority of the minority—the man or woman whose preparation was good enough to enter the "open door" on individual

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John W. Macy, Jr. is Chairman, U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Food evaluation scientists test food properties at a Defense Subsistence Supply Center.

merit. There has been no such opportunity for the much larger group of Negro and other Americans who have been deprived of the necessary preparation through educational and economic disadvantage, and for whom the open door still has no reality.

Over the same period, however, there has been a significant change in the climate of the Nation with respect to civil rights: The forming of a national conscience into public policy has been achieved, and the expectations of minority groups have risen sharply. Clearly, the public service has a duty to function in the public interest as an instrument of social change.

Building upon the experience of the recent past, President Johnson has set a new goal for the Federal service: "Not just equality as a right and a theory, but equality as a fact and as a result."

On September 24, 1965, in order to strengthen civil rights functions in the Federal service, the President issued an Executive Order directing a realignment of those functions, and placing appropriate programs within established Government agencies. As the central personnel agency of the Federal Government, the Civil Service Commission was given the responsibility previously held by the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, and a new and strengthened authority, to administer and enforce a revitalized program in the Federal service. The President directed the heads of all departments and agencies to establish and maintain a positive program of equal employment opportunity, and to comply with regulations and instructions issued by the Commission under the order.

President Johnson's mandate is to make the Federal Government, as the Nation's largest employer, a showcase of *achievement* in equal employment opportunity and a model for other employers to follow.

The Commission welcomed the new assignment and the opportunity it gave to replace advice with instructions, where necessary, and to see that the instructions were carried out. For the Federal Government is not only a very large but also a very complex, diversified, and decentralized employer. And while, at one end of the scale, there were agencies that had responded wholeheartedly to the drive for equal opportunity, at the other end of the scale, there were agencies where the word did not reach the first-line supervisor.

A professional dietitian instructs a chief cook (in chef's hat) and two food service workers in preparing the noon meal in a Veterans Administration hospital.

The Federal Employment Structure

Immediately following the President's order, the Commission inaugurated a new action program calling for the eradication of all vestiges of prejudice throughout the Federal service, for a complete review of Federal employment practices, and for heavy emphasis on training and development of employees. Federal managers were directed to join in broad community efforts to eliminate barriers to equal opportunity. The President urged that equal opportunity principles be woven into the fabric of day-to-day personnel operations throughout the Government.

New Commission regulations embodying that program provide for a joint responsibility: Each agency head is specifically required to develop and maintain a comprehensive action program within his agency and to see that it is carried out at all levels, and the Civil Service Commission is responsible for leadership, guidance, and supervision of the government-wide program.

The regulations require that agencies receive and adjudicate employee complaints expeditiously, and that appeals by employees from agency actions come to the Commission for decision. They establish a new system for providing current statistical data on minority-group employment. They necessitate increased involvement of Federal agencies and managers in activities with local employers, schools and colleges, and public and private groups, to correct community conditions that limit opportunities for minority-group citizens. And finally, they include a restatement of the policy of equal opportunity without regard to politics, religion, sex, national origin, marital status, or physical handicap.

Examples of other actions that the Commission has taken include studies of qualification requirements with appropriate revisions to insure that the application process does not present unnecessary obstacles, especially for lower-grade jobs, and the preparation of new inspection guides for evaluating agency programs.

In short, the Commission is committing its full resources to the elimination of the third *unreality* which affected the achievement of equal employment opportunity in the past: the fact that the program was not sufficiently real in terms of the Federal employment structure and methods.

The attack on this problem represents a redirecting of our traditional concepts of merit employment toward the challenge of equal results. It does *not* represent abandonment of the quest for quality, nor does it call for compromise of the principles of open competition. On the contrary, it calls for imaginative and courageous drive to make the merit principle a living reality to a degree that has never before been achieved.

I want to give just two examples of how this is being done. The first is a new activity with a new name. We call it "Program MUST," which stands for "Maximum Utilization of Skills and Training." It involves the redesign of jobs wherever possible to provide more realistic entrance requirements that can be met by people with limited qualifications, and the provision of on-the-job training and promotional opportunities that will help them to go as high as their potential warrants. Job redesign means the separation of nonprofessional tasks from professional jobs and purely routine tasks from technical, office, and blue-collar jobs, and the concentration of such tasks into new clerical, technician, assistant, and helper jobs.

We are enthusiastic about Program MUST, because it promises multiple benefits. While providing new employment opportunity for the disadvantaged, it also makes it possible for the fully trained employees to concentrate on highly skilled work. Through full utilization of the skills and training of higher level employees, plus the purposeful training and development of those who enter at the lower levels, it will help Federal agencies to meet present and future manpower shortages under job market conditions close to full employment. Although this program is just getting under way, the remarkable success of the youth opportunity programs—the dramatic improvement of the untrained and inexperienced youngsters who have been given part-time or summer jobs, and the enthusiastic response of Government supervisors who have seen what

An electronic engineer works on systems design for a transistor acceptance test for the Department of the Navy.

A missile systems analyst (left) demonstrates his use of U.S. Air Force missile guidance equipment.

Food evaluation scientists test food properties at a Defense Subsistence Supply Center.

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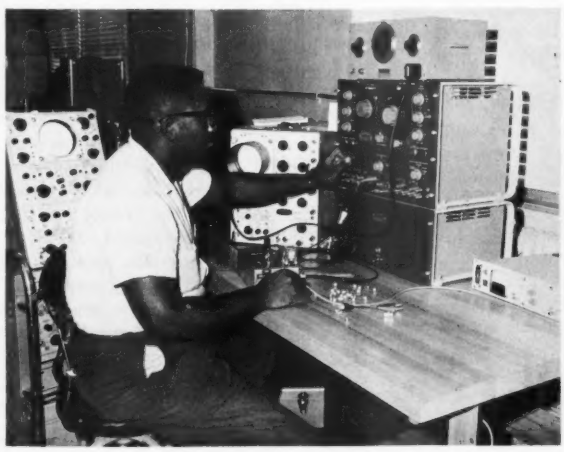


A missile systems analyst (left) demonstrates his use of U.S. Air Force missile guidance equipment.

Housing interns study an urban renewal program in New York City with Department of Housing and Urban Development officials.

A static firing crew at a Naval Ordnance Test Station prepares a thrust stand for a static firing test.

U.S. Navy photo

careful training could accomplish—has convinced us that such a program cannot fail.

The second example I want to give is the new emphasis on community involvement. The community reviews we made in 85 cities, North and South across the country, showed that much more than improvement of employment practices within the Federal service was needed. We found that community conditions—education, housing, transportation, and other social and economic factors—directly affect employability. Federal Executive Boards, which are organizations of the directors of local branches of Federal agencies in 15 principal centers of Government employment, are taking the lead in attacking this problem. One illustration is the type of involvement planned by the Federal Executive Board in St. Louis. (St. Louis ranks eighth among metropolitan areas outside Washington, D.C., in Federal employee population.)

Following an equal employment opportunity workshop program in May, the St. Louis Board appointed panels or committees from among its members on recruitment and placement, employee development, education, housing, and communication. After intensive study of community conditions in their respective areas, the panels presented specific recommendations for aggressive action in cooperation with the responsible organizations and individuals in those areas, from whom there has been a most favorable response. Such programs will provide examples that Federal managers in smaller communities can adapt to local conditions and needs.

In summary, the objective of the Federal Government as an employer is to make equal employment opportunity a reality in every respect—and it is something more. The principles of the Federal merit system provide the basis for a completely fair and democratic system of employment. We intend, through revitalized application and adaptation of those principles, to get a true representation of all segments of our citizenry—a representative cross section of America—throughout the Federal service. Without those who have been shut out by discrimination and disadvantage, even though the door was open, we do not have a genuinely democratic system. That is what we are determined to have, and we will be satisfied with nothing less.

OWYHEE RESERVATION

(*Continued from page 39*)

"In this class I learned how to repair my tractor and machinery without the expense of a mechanic." "For the first time, I have hope of showing a profit on my farm." "I now realize the importance of proper breeding and feeding of cattle." "The white man has brought a lot of programs to this area, but MDTA is the first one that the Indians wanted and that has lived up to expectations."

Most of the enrollees continued in training until completion, and 46 were graduated from these four courses. About 45 percent of the graduates were veterans.

Today, most of the graduates of these classes are employed full time on the large ranches of the area during the haying and roundup seasons. Because of their MDTA training, they have been able to obtain increased wages ranging from $1.25 to $1.75 per hour. In some cases, they have been employed on a permanent basis at $1.75 per hour plus housing; however, they regularly return to their own spreads to work part-time with their cattle and crops.

The success of the Owyhee project spread to other reservations and colonies. Currently, a similar course is in progress at the Walker River Reservation; a project has been requested for the Pyramid Lake Indian Reservation; and training in clerical occupations is in the planning stage for another reservation.

Success of these programs is due to three factors: The instructor understood the philosophy of the Indian people; the course was conducted on the reservation; and the Indians themselves conceived the idea and requested something they *needed* and *wanted*.

Showing the Way in Preparing Negro Jobseekers

ZACK J. WESTON

South Carolina is demonstrating that the educational process is the most effective means of combatting low-level literacy and lack of job skills among Negro workers.

Judging by yardsticks used to measure employment status—more jobs, increased wages, low unemployment—the economic situation of nonwhite jobseekers is improving steadily. In fact, there are many more job opportunities today for these workers than there are qualified applicants to meet the needs.

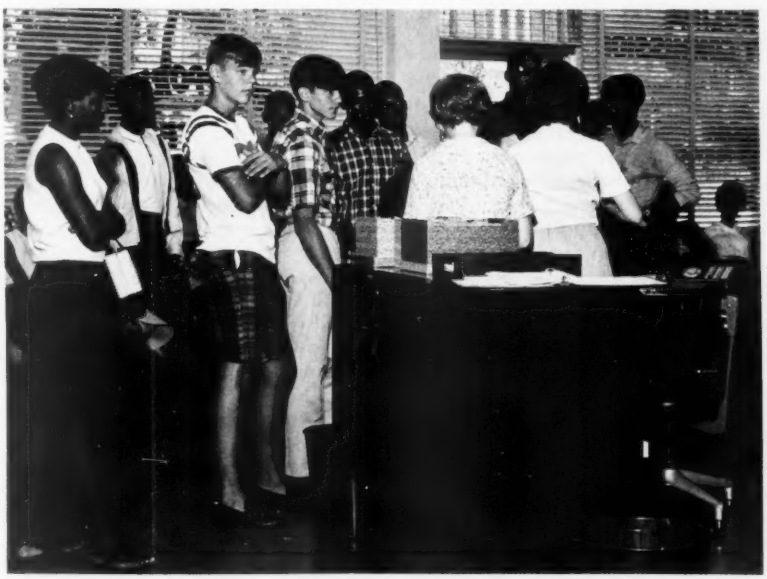
This striking change has resulted in large measure through the combined efforts of the South Carolina Employment Security Commission, the Vocational Education Division of the State Department of Education, and the State Commission for Technical Education.

Nearly a year before passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, South Carolina started a crash program to train unskilled Negro and white workers deprived of gainful employment by automation and economic change. This need was reflected by the fact that 5.7 percent of the civilian work force was unemployed at a time when large numbers of jobs were going unfilled because applicants lacked basic education and vocational skills. In addition, a significant proportion of the work force was underemployed.

With a grant of $5.6 million under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the State initiated its STEP program (Special Training for Economic Progress) to train approximately 5,000 persons in 35 occupational fields during an 18-month period. (See EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW, August 1964, page 36.) Later, 18 MDTA courses were begun in seven Technical Education Centers with 540 students enrolled at an average cost to the State of approximately $1,500 for each individual. Another $185,000 was spent for five MDTA on-the-job training programs for 1,719 persons.

Because of their low position in the State's labor force, Negroes became the chief beneficiaries of the STEP program when Congress amended MDTA in 1963 to provide training in basic education for the illiterate jobless. At the time, South Carolina's nonwhite population exceeded 830,000, of whom 210,000 were classed as illiterates. This appalling situation reflected the Negro workers' status: job opportunities limited to unskilled labor or service occupations; high

High school students seeking summer jobs crowd around the reception desk at the Youth Opportunity Center in Columbia, S.C. More than 500 applicants were registered the day after school closed.



Zack J. Weston is Minority Groups Representative, South Carolina Employment Security Commission.

unemployment rates; low family incomes—averaging only two-fifths that of white families; poor living conditions; and lack of motivation.

Opportunity To Improve

State officials realized that if South Carolina were to take its rightful place in the Nation, unskilled Negroes and whites had to be given an opportunity to improve themselves. The multioccupational STEP program and MDTA single-occupation courses developed a potential labor force and at the same time assisted persons who needed training that would help them find decent jobs.

The success of the program is indicated by the strong general improvement in economic conditions during the past year. In 1965, the availability of recently trained manpower helped to attract a record $600 million in new industry to the State. Because of this, unemployment was at the lowest level in years, and personal income in the State increased 11.6 percent—the second highest average in the southeastern region, and the fifth highest average in the Nation.

The training programs helped South Carolina Negroes to reach new employment heights. More Negro workers qualified for training and began working in well paying jobs in 1965 than in any other year in history. Evidence of this advancement is abundant.

Across the State, Employment Service placement officers can tell hundreds of success stories of Negro trainees who have been rescued from the effects of low levels of education and work experience. For example, a Greenville County sharecropper, who quit school in the third grade, is earning $90 a week as a heavy duty equipment operator. Two Swansea brothers completed a furniture repair course, opened their own business, and are averaging $400 each per month. A deserted mother of three children moved from a tax liability to a taxpayer by completing a cooking course and acquiring a $75-a-week job in a Myrtle Beach resort restaurant. Another high school dropout, who at 22 had never made more than $30 weekly, finished a STEP bricklaying course and now makes nearly $40 a day at Sumter.

Atmosphere of Hope

While these examples are exceptional success stories, it can be said that most trainees have been influenced positively through the programs which will benefit them and their families for generations to come. They have found a new way of life. The greatest single benefit of MDTA and STEP has been in the area of encouragement—creating the training programs, getting workers prepared, and generating an atmosphere of hope.

A major problem still to be overcome in the improvement of the economic status of South Carolina Negroes is the high dropout rate. An exhaustive study of the problem 2 years ago showed that of the 40,405 Negro students who entered first grade in 1952, about three-fourths had quit school before their class graduated from high school in 1964.

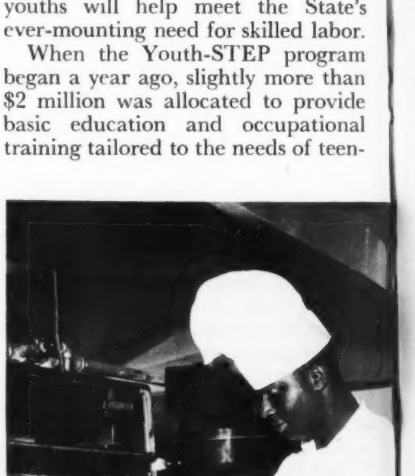
With an increasing number of jobs requiring workers to have more and more educational and specific vocational preparation, these Negro young people are finding themselves unable to compete for jobs. As a result, they are experiencing a high rate of unemployment at a time when more jobs are looking for people than there are people looking for jobs.

The situation was helped somewhat during 1965 with the establishment of Youth Opportunity Centers at Columbia, Charleston, and Greenville and Youth-STEP centers at Columbia and Charleston. In addition, the State Employment Service recently expanded its youth operations in other localities through five separate youth units designed to handle employment problems of young men and women 16 through 21.

Last year, YOC officials found jobs for nearly 3,000 youths and sent an additional 1,000 dropouts—mostly Negro boys—to Job Corps conservation centers where they are given basic schooling along with job and citizenship training. Arrangements have been made for their employment upon returning to South Carolina. It is hoped that by means of this training, these disadvantaged youths will help meet the State's ever-mounting need for skilled labor.

Fast-growing clerical occupations are providing new opportunities for South Carolina Negro workers. This young woman, previously unemployed, was hired as a $60-a-week stenographer after MDTA training.

When the Youth-STEP program began a year ago, slightly more than $2 million was allocated to provide basic education and occupational training tailored to the needs of teen-



Vocational training in South Carolina's STEP program pays big dividends. This former student graduated into a $300-a-month cooking job.

agers entering the job market. The Columbia program has enrolled 482 trainees; 210 have graduated; 37 have withdrawn to take work in related fields; 13 have gone to the armed services; and 170 have dropped out and found employment in fields other than those for which they were being trained.

A followup survey revealed that 63 percent of Columbia Youth-STEP graduates accepted work in fields for which they were trained. Certain courses such as bricklaying, carpentry, nurse aide, and office clerk had as high as 95 percent of all graduates working in their respective vocations.

A study of 143 of these graduates who reported their income shows an average present salary of $48.48 for persons unemployed prior to training. Those persons who had been working before training netted an average weekly salary increase of $19.94 following graduation.

There is every indication that students are enthusiastic about the opportunities provided by the Youth-STEP program. This was evident earlier this year when Columbia Youth-STEP had to move from quarters in an old school building to another location in west Columbia. The new headquarters, donated by an interested businessman, consisted of a warehouse, 250 by 70 feet, with four walls, and a roof. The donor provided free materials with the condition that student labor be used in the construction work.

STEP trainees in bricklaying, carpentry, and plumbing often worked many hours of overtime to complete their assignments. A maintenance crew, under direction of a master electrician, handled all wiring except for the air-conditioning system. Meanwhile, student cooks prepared food which student waitresses served to the student builders. Within 3 weeks, the bare warehouse was transformed into an ultramodern school in which administrators, faculty, and students take deep pride.

Significant Breakthrough

Negro progress in South Carolina cannot yet be measured in terms of mass employment, but the breakthrough in terms of more Negroes in more new job categories has been significant.

Slowly, but surely, poorly trained and uneducated Negroes are finding out that poverty and welfare dependence do not have to be their way of life. They are coming to realize the necessity for equipping themselves to be able to compete in today's complex economy, on the basis of qualification alone, for the highly skilled tasks demanded by our technologically advanced society.

Even in the midst of unparalleled progress, young and old Negro South Carolinians are still reluctant to train for jobs not previously associated with Negro employment. School officials acknowledge that one of the biggest problems is that of convincing Negroes that jobs will be open to them if they prepare for occupations requiring technical and managerial abilities and for skilled trades.

They Want Job Security

Recruiters visiting the State's six Negro colleges have encountered a real problem in overcoming these students' strong desire for job security. They seem uncertain about their chances in new occupations, so they tend to "play safe" in the traditional Negro professions of teaching, the ministry, law, medicine, dentistry, and social work.

While it is obvious that State and Federal Government programs have created the atmosphere within which South Carolina Negroes can progress, it is equally obvious that Negroes themselves will have to play a vital role in their own economic upgrading.

Thousands of South Carolina Negroes yet untouched by MDTA or STEP programs are anxiously awaiting their chance. State officials are committed to raising their economic potential. But in the last analysis, if their employment status is to keep pace with the changing times, these workers must have the desire, the motivation, and the determination to close the gap between their education and training and the requirements of the job market.

Atlantic City Trains Cooks

(*Continued from page 31*)

ties for satisfying and productive work careers. Some said they plan to try to raise money to open their own restaurant.

The students expressed their appreciation for the training opportunity on March 1, when they got together to plan a surprise birthday party for their supervisor, Mr. Kaylakie. Without his knowledge, they had baked a cake which they presented to him during the luncheon period.

The restaurant's general manager was lavish in his praise of the program; the firm used several of the students to augment the regular cooking staff on weekends.

Inquiries about the Atlantic City training program for cooks came from many other States, some of which sent representatives to the school. The course was also given wide publicity in local and State papers, as well as in trade journals. Discussions are now taking place on the possibility of offering a similar course in Atlantic City this fall.

When instruction neared completion, there was every indication that the local office of the State Employment Service would have little difficulty placing all "graduates" in well-paying positions that will hold promise of gratifying work careers. In fact, operators of a number of large restaurants in the resort city had already asked for referrals of several students upon completion of the course.

At the time of the graduation on June 25, 63 of the students had already been placed in jobs, 25 others were to go to work the following week, and 15 were returning to their previous places of employment, but in a higher status of work. Nine of the graduates were not accepting immediate employment for various reasons and only 6 of the 118 who completed the course had not yet accepted job offers. At that time, however, the local office had 16 openings for skilled cooks.

To Fulfill These Rights

The White House Conference of June 1 and 2 directed attention of participants to four subject matter areas considered critical to securing for Negroes the fulfillment of their rights as American citizens. The subjects were chosen by a 30-member Council appointed by President Johnson prior to the meeting and presented in a report to the scholars, experts, outstanding Negro leaders, and government officials who convened in Washington as promised by the President the year before in a major speech at Howard University.

The problems or issues centered on (1) Economic Security and Welfare, (2) Education, (3) Housing, and (4) Administration of Justice. Specific proposals developed by the Council were suggested to participants, who could offer revisions or alternative proposals and then commit their efforts to those actions in their own communities which would achieve early and important effects.

All of the problem areas are of utmost concern to Americans of good will of every creed, color, and political belief, but that of economic security is most closely related to, and the primary purpose of, the public Employment Service. Summarized below are the Council's recommendations to deal with Negro unemployment "of disaster proportions" and for large-scale action urgently needed "to achieve full and fair employment for the Negro working age population, and equal opportunity, decent living standards, and security for all of the Nation's Negro citizens."

What actions result from the Conference will be reported later by the Council. The direction which these actions are likely to take are revealed in the following recommendations.

I.

Metropolitan Jobs Councils should be established in each major urban area with substantial Negro population.

The Councils should be concerned with developing accurate information on the Negro labor force and its job opportunities in the area, helping to coordinate and improve existing government and private programs to meet the economic needs of the community's Negro population, and planning programs and resources to provide additional services. The Councils should complement and assist the efforts of the Employment Service and private groups such as the Urban League, while their assumption of key functions should make it possible to reduce the number of overlapping local agencies.

The Councils should *develop and keep up-to-date a Metropolitan Human Resources Action Program for the community.*

1. The Councils should *take positive steps to ensure that the business community, labor organizations, and government agencies assume maximum responsibility for expanding job opportunities for Negro workers.*

2. The Councils should *establish or arrange for Human Resources Development Centers* in areas of substantial Negro unemployment. The Centers should develop means of reaching disadvantaged Negro workers and encouraging them to utilize their services. Services should include diagnosis of the problems and needs that interfere with job seeking and adjustment of individual workers; intensive counseling; referral to health, welfare, or other services; referral to appropriate remedial education or training facilities; specialized job development services and placement of unemployed workers on jobs under continuing supervision by Center personnel.

3. The Councils should *assume leadership in the local implementation of a national year-round youth job placement program.*

4. The Councils should develop a system of periodic reports from local employers to identify jobs and occupations in which unemployed Negroes may find employment, to provide data on hiring, employment levels, and occupational status of Negro

Participants at the White House Conference: (Left to right) Ben W. Heineman, Conference Chairman; Hon. Hubert Humphrey, Vice President; and A. Philip Randolph, Honorary Chairman of the Council.

workers, and to assist in developing occupational training programs to help Negro applicants qualify for employment or upgrading.

5. The Councils should conduct an extensive program of public education to combat prejudice and discrimination affecting the economic status of the Negro.

II.

A substantial proportion of the more than four million Negroes still living in southern rural areas are impoverished.

The Conference urgently recommends the appointment of an emergency Rural Job Task Force.

Besides providing farmers' aid, the Task Force should recommend prompt and practical steps by which private and public resources can be used to:

1. Provide intensive job training programs, directly tied to the new job opportunities stimulated by local and regional economic planning—such training to be accompanied by provision of adequate living income for trainees and their families.

2. Ensure that jobs created by local economic development programs are open to Negroes on an equal opportunity basis.

3. Provide part-time or off-season work opportunities in rural areas for farmers and hired farmworkers, to supplement their incomes from agriculture. Such jobs, financed mainly by Federal, State, or local government funds, should provide socially useful work in such fields as area beautification, conservation, and public services.

4. Sharply upgrade the substandard conditions under which migratory workers and their families are employed, housed, and educated by (a) improving government education, vocational training, health, and housing programs for migrants, such as those conducted under the Economic Opportunity Act; (b) strengthening labor standards legislation; (c) developing new institutions and practices to rationalize the job market and to provide year-round employment opportunities for seasonal farmworkers; and (d) continuing the progress made in reducing the use of foreign farmworkers on U.S. farms.

5. *Facilitate the economic and social adjustment of rural Negroes migrating to the city by* (a) establishing centers in rural surplus labor areas, with technical and financial assistance provided by the Federal Government and private institutions, to help potential migrants make advance arrangements for jobs and housing and to provide vocational and personal counseling for would-be migrants; (b) expanding county agent and home demonstration agent programs, in both rural and city areas, designed to help rural Negroes secure employment in cities and to cope with the transition from rural to urban life; and (c) developing reception facilities by local governments and community organizations in urban labor demand areas. These facilities should be equipped to help the rural in-migrant solve employment and housing problems; to make available to them the range of health, welfare, and other urban services; and to provide temporary quarters (halfway houses, youth hostels) for youthful and adult migrants during the initial adjustment period.

6. Provide for the establishment of permanent local or regional *Rural Jobs Councils* which will assist in implementing and reviewing programs initiated under the Rural Jobs Task Force.

III.

Development of a Comprehensive Human Resource Program is needed. Recent experience revealed that absence of basic information on the population in the Watts section of Los Angeles was one of the immediate problems confronting private and public groups sent to determine programs needed to eliminate Negro social and economic problems which were assumed to be causal factors underlying the riots. This information would have been more readily available if a Comprehensive Human Resource Program has been in existence.

1. The U.S. Department of Labor should assume leadership in *developing and conducting an effective program for collecting and analyzing information on the number, characteristic, employment, unemployment, and job opportunities of Negro work-*

One of the 12 panel sessions which discussed economic security and welfare, housing, education, and administration of justice.

ers. Data should be obtained for both urban and rural areas, and on a neighborhood basis in areas of heavy unemployment and underemployment. The current gap in employment and unemployment statistics by race on an area basis should be promptly filled, and this information made available to help local agencies plan to meet their manpower needs.

2. The Department of Labor should develop and keep up-to-date a *Human Resource Budget:*

a. Identifying the number, types, and problems of Negro youths, unskilled workers, older workers, women, and other specific groups of the working age population in need of intensive manpower services;

b. Establishing specific goals and timetables for providing these services.

3. The Human Resource Budget should include short and long run estimates of expected employment and unemployment by race, major industry, area, and occupations; estimates of the need for government action to supplement expected employment opportunities; and definite program plans for federally financed public works or service employment opportunities in advance of serious manpower dislocations at the local or national level.

4. The Department of Labor should prepare periodic reports systematically evaluating the progress of Negroes in the job market and the effectiveness of government and nongovernment services in meeting the needs of the Negro working age population.

IV.

Jobs must be provided without delay to solve the Negro unemployment crisis. And these jobs must be made available for Negroes at their existing level of skill attainment to prevent a worsening of social tensions, to eliminate the waste of human potential, and to lighten the heavy welfare burdens imposed on the community. We must not expect this problem to be eliminated automatically by the long-run competitive forces of the job market. Even in an economy approaching full employment, joblessness among Negroes will remain a persistent problem.

1. The Federal Government should develop and finance a program of *guaranteed employment* for able workers who cannot be placed in, or promptly trained for, regular employment. The work experience provided should help upgrade the worker's job skills and prepare him for regular employment.

To guide this program, an *annual job budget* should be developed in which short-run and long-run esti-

mates of labor force, employment, and underemployment should be considered in relation to the whole range of the Nation's economic and social resources and needs, in order to develop goals and priorities on the numbers and location of workers and projects to be served. This job budget should be tied closely to the Comprehensive Human Resource Program.

2. A large-scale federally financed *public works program* to provide jobs through the private sector should be undertaken at once. Immediate targets should be the major urban centers where Negro unemployment is most severe and the Southern States where most of the rural farm and nonfarm Negro population live. In addition, long-range blue prints for public works and services should be developed for emergency use to prevent national or local manpower dislocations such as sharp dips in employment. Priority should be given to public works which produce the greatest manpower requirements for the industries, types of workers, and areas most in need of job opportunities.

3. The Federal Government, in cooperation with local and State governments, should undertake a large-scale program of employment in public services.

Three civil rights leaders attending the White House Conference: (Left to right) Roy Wilkins, Executive Director, NAACP; Al Higginbotham, member of Council, Philadelphia, Pa.; and Whitney Young, Jr., Executive Director, National Urban League.

V.

Because of their disadvantages in the job market, young Negroes need especially intensive vocational counseling to determine their best occupational prospects, and to plan the most effective educational and training programs tailored to their individual needs. Large numbers of them have yet to be convinced that employment opportunities are increasing and job restrictions are diminishing, particularly in skilled, technical, and white collar work. Those who have little reason to believe they will be successful in the job market need encouragement and counseling in seeking and applying for regular employment. Yet, programs to provide intensive counseling services for Negro youth are grossly inadequate.

1. *A year-round youth job placement program* comparable to the special summer program formalized in 1965 should be developed. Jobs must be generated for male and female Negro teenagers which utilize their present skills while preparing them with new and better skills for occupational advancement.

2. *Counseling services for in-school youths should be vastly improved and expanded,* making available skilled vocational advisers who are acquainted with the requirements of industry. A target of at least one counselor for every 100 youth should be set for schools in poverty areas. Public employment offices should expand their vocational counseling services in the schools.

3. *Community organizations should supplement the counseling services* of government with emphasis on the needs of disadvantaged youth with especially severe employment and training problems.

VI.

Affirmative action by private employers and labor unions is needed. Among things that need to be done are:

1. Positive communication to Negroes that barriers of exclusion have been removed. This should be done through both regular and Negro-oriented media, civic meetings, mass meetings, radio and television.

2. Encourage Negroes to apply for all levels of employment.

3. Review of all qualifications standards and tests to insure that Negroes are not victims of unconscious bias and that standards are fair and objective.

WATTS

(*Continued from page 22*)

The one-stop State Service Center concept in ghetto communities has now developed some powerful advocates. In the session of the California Legislature recently concluded, Governor Brown requested 12 such centers throughout the State. The centers would have three main components: the Employment Service, the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, and the State Department of Social Welfare. In addition, it would have supporting staff from Apprenticeship, Public Health, Mental Hygiene, Corrections, Youth Authority, FEPC, Consumers Counsel, Veterans Affairs, and others.

The service centers are not a panacea guaranteed to solve all of the problems and make another "Watts of August 1965" impossible. They are, however, a step which will make government services accessible. Hopefully, the centers will provide individual help for the hard-core unemployed and will provide *jobs.* The centers will make a difference.

For "Wilburt Harrison," the center made *the* difference. Wilburt, age 38, has 11 dependents (children aged 1 month to 16 years), a 10th grade education, several arrests, and one conviction. From 1950 to 1965 the case file of Wilburt Harrison reveals a life full of frustration, no skills, unemployment, welfare assistance, and incarceration.

On February 2, 1966, Wilburt was employed by a large aircraft factory as a fork lift operator at $2.83 per hour. He had been placed by the State Service Center, and his initial transportation to work was furnished by that same center.

There are many Wilburt Harrisons in Watts.

He Found His "Greater Challenge"

Mr. Whiteface likes working with youth in the Nemo Job Corps Conservation Center.

CLAIRE MAYER

Fred Whiteface may look out of the education building of the Nemo Job Corps Conservation Center at a wooded section of the Black Hills of South Dakota. This is Paha Sapa, the sacred ground of the Sioux, not far from the great and rich gold mining area of the State.

A route of employment feast and famine has brought Fred, a three-fourths Sioux Indian, back to the Black Hills to work with culturally deprived boys. "This work is the 'greater challenge' I expressed a desire to find when I first made contact with the employment office in Rapid City almost 2 years ago." Fred remarks.

Mr. Whiteface was born in 1922, while his family was moving to northern Shannon County in the South Dakota Badlands. There, on the reservation, with its shimmering summer heat and its sudden winter blizzards, he and his brother and sister spent their early childhood.

His parents parted and his mother took the children to live with her at Holy Rosary Mission. There he completed high school in 1940.

Fred entered the Civilian Conservation Corps where he worked as

Driver education is one of the courses taught by Mr. Whiteface at the Center.

Claire Mayer is a Counselor in the Rapid City local office, South Dakota Employment Security Department.

a truck driver and received some training in telephone and radio communications.

In September of 1942 he enlisted in the Navy and saw action in the Pacific. He became a civilian again in December 1945, and was married a month later.

Four years later he graduated with a degree in education from Black Hills State College. For the next 8 years he taught in high schools in western South Dakota towns, driving trucks in summertime to supplement his salary for a growing family.

The New Moon trailer factory started operations in Rapid City, S. Dak., and in 1957 Fred began working there as line inspector; 6 months later he became personnel director. Later he was transferred to Alma, Mich., as purchasing, then materials manager. Health problems in his family caused him to request transfer to Rapid City. Five days after the transfer was completed, the factory burned and the directors decided not to rebuild.

Missile bases were being established in South Dakota's West River area. Fred went to work with Nor-Air as buyer, than to Page-River-Curran as purchasing agent. Work was completed in early 1963, and Fred decided to remain in the area, so he turned a long-time avocation into self-employment and became an orchestra leader and a salesman for the Williams Piano Co. While he was employed there, he set up a method of stock control which the company is still using and has installed in other offices.

Orchestra work in this area does not bring the income necessary to raise a family of six children, all of whom Fred has determined will be educated to their highest capacity. He was also beginning to look for a "greater challenge." His February 1965 contact with the Rapid City local ES office started him again working with young people. A stopgap week of substitute teaching developed into completion of the school year at Douglas High School.

At the suggestion of the interviewer in the Rapid City local office, he studied counseling and guidance at Black Hills State College during the summer of 1965 with the hope that he might obtain a job at the Nemo Job Corps Conservation Center.

Fred was referred to the Corps and on August 29, 1965, he accepted work as an instructor. Now he teaches mathematics, music, and driver education. He indulged his interest in efficiency by setting up a prototype form to replace several forms used previously. This form was accepted by the Office of Economic Opportunity, and it will soon be used in Job Corps Centers throughout the Nation.

The Rapid City local office is pleased to have played a part in placing this a capable employee in a job which he finds challenging and rewarding.

ARIZONA'S EXPERIENCE

(*Continued from page 13*)

Women. Many people were educated through the resulting publicity that the Civil Rights Act protected women's rights as well as those of minorities.

The Arizona congressional delegation, city and State officials, major employers, local and national civil rights leaders received, upon request, the ASES publication, "Minority Manpower Digest." Serving as a communication outlet for human relations organizations, civil rights groups, and minorities, the "Digest" selects and summarizes manpower information pertinent to civil rights and the disadvantaged. Subject matter contained in the "Digest" is frequently broadcast over radio stations or becomes the source of full scale news stories.

Arizona has witnessed, as have other southwestern States, an increased interest by Mexican-Americans in civil rights. In an Equal Opportunity Conference for Mexican-Americans, held in Phoenix, the ASES was represented by Spanish-speaking personnel. The Employment Service has kept abreast of community attitudes and has translated into Spanish information on MDTA, Job Corps, and services of the Employment Service. Recently it has published a Spanish translation of the employment provisions of the State and Federal Civil Rights Act.

Perhaps the most important feature of the Civil Rights Act is its influence in motivating creative means of providing full services to minority groups. This spirit is reflected in the close relationship and support given by the ASES to the Phoenix Urban League's Skills Bank, its Skills Level Improvement Project (SLIP), the continual efforts of local offices to assist employers in hiring more minorities, and the positive influence upon local business and industry groups.

This spirit is illustrated in a color slide projection, "The Employment Story of Minorities," conceived and developed by agency personnel with scenes depicting the actual services to minorities, including MDTA training courses. The filmstrip-graphs illustrate the problems of low income, and low educational level, while followup slides indicate the activities of the Employment Service in attempting to combat disadvantages.

This color slide presentation has greatly increased the respect for the agency by minorities and has served to educate many who were not acquainted with the problems of minorities nor the scope of Employment Service activities.

This spirit is illustrated when the Arizona State Employment Service permitted 26 Negro girls of varying degrees of clerical skill to use the facilities of the Professional, Sales, and Clerical Office during off hours to upgrade their skills. The self-help organization called NOW (Neighborhood Office Workshop) has since been the subject of two feature articles by Phoenix daily papers, and its membership has grown. The Employment Service has also aided in enlisting the services of its personnel to serve as volunteer instructors and has placed NOW graduates in positions with local firms.

The letter of the law of the Civil Rights Act establishes minimum human behavior, but it is those with the spirit of the act who act positively to create the reality of equal opportunity that are making the revolutionary changes in our society.

Sierra Blanca Ski Lodge.

VIC LINDSEY

Indians Work at Their Own Ski Resort

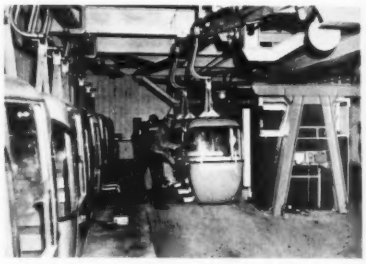
The Sierra Blanca Ski Resort, in south central New Mexico, made possible by the 12,000-foot peak from which it takes its name, is on the Mescalero Apache Reservation and is wholly owned by the tribe. Facilities are valued at about $2 million.

Only one Apache, Chrisosto Pena, remains of 15 trained under the Area Redevelopment Act as ski lift operators in the fall of 1964, but he has served as an effective nucleus for the training of an additional 20 Apaches.

Chrisosto Pena, second from left, supervises the other four men who are year-round ski lift operators at the ski resort.

This lone survivor of ARA training is described by the resort manager as "one of the best employees I have." He works winter and summer as lower terminal operator, dispatches 75 four-passenger gondola cars that carry skiers and sightseers 8,000 feet up the north side of the mountain at a vertical lift of 1,700 feet. He also works in slack times as a sawyer to keep ski trails clear of new growth.

Not one Apache was employed by the lodge during 1964, the first year of operation, because of lack of specific background or training, but Apaches made up about half the work force in the last two seasons. During the ski season, there are about 45 full-time employees and 20 part-time. About 25 are ski instructors.



Gondolas at the base of the ski lift.

Five Apaches work full time as lift operators, while others work in the kitchen, maintenance, and other service areas. Full-time employees earn $350 to $450 per month.

About 40,000 skiers visited Sierra Blanca in the 1966 season which ended on Easter Sunday. This compares with 30,000 skiers last year and 17,000 in 1964. About three-fourths of the visitors stayed overnight at the town of Ruidoso 16 miles away.

The manager believes that, with enlarged and expanded facilities, the area easily can handle 80,000 skiers a season. All this will mean more job opportunities for the Indians.

Vic Lindsey is Informational Representative, New Mexico Employment Security Commission.

Arapahoe Indian Trains for Space Age

Nelson P. White, a 27-year-old Arapahoe Indian from the Wind River Indian Reservation of Fremont County, Wyo., is tall and lean with a gleam in his eye. He has strong hands, long fingers and, most important, a bright alert mind. He is an electronic assembler who had been trained at an electronic fabrication school at Oakland, Calif., and had returned to the reservation after completing his military service.

Are electronic assemblers needed in Wyoming? Not many, perhaps, but the Wyoming State Employment Service at Riverton interviewed him, gave him a color perception test, and found him a job.

A new electronics manufacturing and research company in Riverton needed skilled helpers and turned to the local WSES office. The local office staff spotted Nelson White's record in the files and sent a messenger to his home. The day after he came to the local office he went to work as an assembler.

His job consisted of making circuit boards using the Xerox machine to duplicate the miniaturized, complex circuits that are the heart of a hand recording machine. The machine captures data on magentic tape and transfers it instantly through an input unit to a computer.

White learned to assemble the complex input units, too. He worked alongside the company's inventor to perfect an electric adding machine that puts data through the input unit and to the computer.

Does he like the work?

"I about know it by heart now," White said. "The boss hopes he can start teaching me to test the equipment, if we land the contract he's working on."

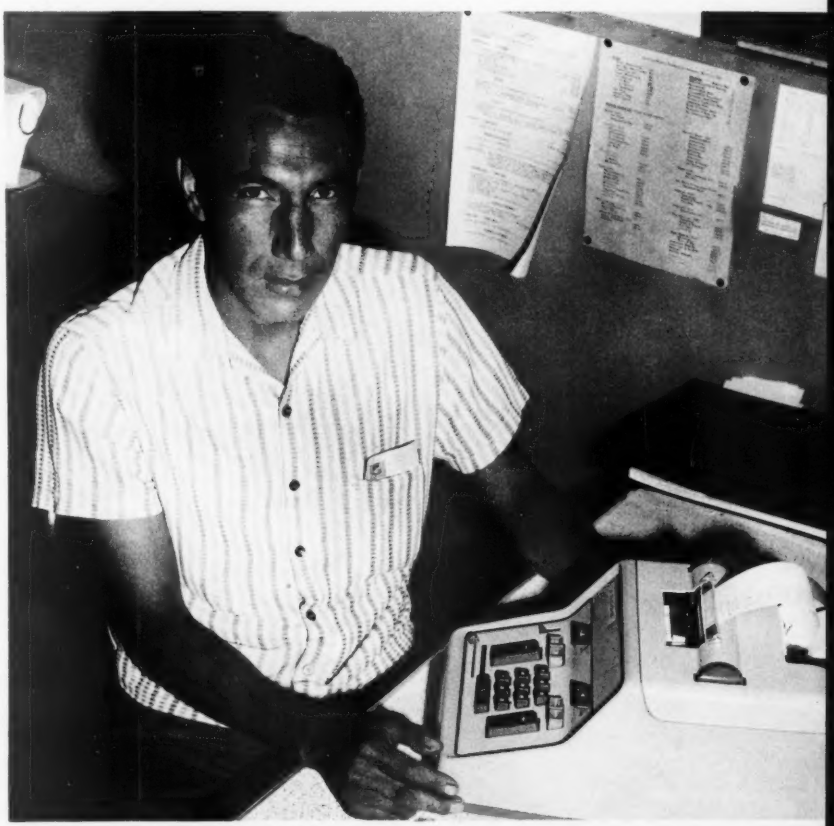
Born February 26, 1939, White finished school at St. Stephens in 1958, then went to the electronic school. He learned new skills under the employment assistance program of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, then took temporary work with a contracting firm and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

After 2 years' active duty with the U.S. Army, 1958 to 1960, White served with the Lander National Guard unit. A 40-hour welding course helped broaden his skill under a BIA adult education program. But electronics is his love, and WSES helped lead him to opportunity.

He and his wife Bonnie, a Sioux from Pine Ridge, S. Dak., have three preschool age children. But they are looking ahead.

"I want to see my children go to college," White said. And they probably will make it.

—THE RIVERTON RANGER.



Nelson P. White at the electric adding machine used to put data through input unit to the computer.

Recommendations of Advisory Panel on USES Tests

In August 1965, BES Administrator Goodwin appointed an advisory panel for USES Occupational Test Development to evaluate USES tests and to help plan any needed change in direction for the test development program. The panel, chaired by Mr. Robert R. Brooks,* gave extensive consideration to the subject of the use of present USES tests for testing the disadvantaged—a matter of considerable current practical interest to Employment Service staff. The panel's recommendations are as follows:

A. All available evidence indicates the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY has been, and is, eminently successful when used with the groups and for the purposes for which it was originally intended, and it is strongly recommended for use with such groups. However, the GATB was not standardized on severely disadvantaged population; was not developed for use with severely disadvantaged persons; and is suitable for such use only under special circumstances and/or for special persons; e.g., modified administrative procedures, determination of need for remedial instruction, and the like.

B. In view of the vital need for, and importance of, tests for use with the disadvantaged, it is essential for the USES to intensify its current efforts to develop such tests.

C. Inasmuch as terms such as "illiteracy," "poverty," "disadvantaged" refer to differences in degree rather than to differences in kind, it is recommended that the USES develop an objective, short, and easily scored screening device to identify individuals who may not be capable of taking the present form of GATB.

D. The continuation of work on a nonreading form of the GATB is of major importance. Insofar as possible, the nonreading measures should be equated with the existing verbal GATB to permit utilization with disadvantaged persons of the voluminous occupational norms available on the verbal GATB.

E. The development of a nonreading test of learning ability is important and necessary. The panel agrees with the judgment of the USES in making an interim test (USES Nonreading Measure of General Learning Ability) available to the Employment Service for immediate but temporary use.

F. The USES strongly is urged to continue the development of arithmetic and reading achievement tests appropriate for adults. Such a program warrants high priority.

G. The USES is encouraged to prepare materials on the subject of "How To Take Tests," including cartoon booklets, sound slide films, tape recordings, and other visual aids.

H. The USES is urged to develop a demonstration and practice test to be used in preparing disadvantaged persons who are test-naive, and who lack "test readiness" and a suitable "test-set."

I. The panel has noted that USES testing has stressed aptitudes, proficiency, information, and abilities. Little work has been done by USES in noncognitive areas such as motivation, emotional maturity, and adjustment. The panel recommends an increase in activity in this latter area with particular emphasis on use of revelant biographical data.

J. In providing testing, counseling, and placement services to the disadvantaged, there is a need to know many details about the background, interests, and personality of the individual. The use of such material requires the imposition of rigid standards to insure appropriateness of the questions and the safeguarding of such privileged information. Present practices are in conformance with this policy.

(Continued on page 78)

**Mr. Brooks is director of Optical Operations of the Perkin-Elmer Corp., Norwalk, Conn. Other members were: Dr. Max F. Baer, national director of the B'nai B'rith youth organization, Washington, D.C.; Mr. Samuel M. Burt, managing director of the Educational Council of the Graphic Arts Industry, Washington, D.C.; Dr. E. R. Henry, consultant, personnel and employee relations, Oradell, N.J.; Dr. Clifton Jones, Department of Sociology, Howard University, Washington, D.C.; Mr. Clifford E. Jurgensen, assistant vice president in charge of personnel of the Minneapolis Gas Co., Minneapolis, Minn.; and Dr. Kenneth E. Pohlmann, Welfare and Retirement Fund, United Mine Workers of America, Washington, D.C.*

MANPOWER TRENDS

JOB OPENINGS AVAILABLE THROUGH ES AT RECORD

A large increase in jobseekers, a greater number of placements in nonfarm jobs, and fewer unfilled openings characterized the situation throughout the public Employment Service system in June as compared with May. Employers placed 831,800 job openings with local offices, 2.2 percent less than in May, but over 7 percent more than a year ago and the most for June since 1945, when such records became available. New applicants for jobs increased 45 percent from May to 1,312,500 in June, when large numbers of youths usually enter the job market for the summer or permanently. Over the year, however, new applications for work declined 7 percent. While placements in nonfarm jobs made through public employment offices rose 9.5 percent from May to 621,600--highest for June since World War II and 2 percent over last June--job openings remaining unfilled continued to climb. Jobs which were still unfilled at the end of June totaled 439,000, down 14.1 percent from May but 46.5 percent from June 1965 to reach the highest for the month since first available records in 1946. Altogether, 1.34 million jobs were available throughout the Federal-State system in June, surpassing openings available in May, when they reached the highest since the series started in 1946.

TOTAL EMPLOYMENT AT RECORD IN JUNE

Total employment (including self-employed, domestic service, and unpaid family workers) reached a record high of 75.7 million in June, as a result of greater-than-seasonal job gains from May of 1.1 million in nonagricultural industries and 900,000 in agriculture. Teenage employment reached a record 8.3 million, increasing 2.0 million from May--attributed in part to the campaign for summer jobs for youth. After rapid January-April gains, no increase in employment of adult workers occurred between May and June. Included in June's employed total were 2.2 million nonfarm workers on part-time for economic reasons.

UNEMPLOYMENT INCREASES, RATE UNCHANGED IN JUNE

A record influx of almost 2.8 million teenagers into the summer job market boosted unemployment--which usually rises between May and June--by 900,000 to nearly 3.9 million. The seasonally adjusted unemployment rate remained unchanged from May at 4.0 percent, although it was down from 4.7 percent in June 1965, when 4.3 million persons were without jobs. Joblessness among men rose by about 100,000 in June, when no change usually occurs, and their unemployment rate rose to 2.6 percent from 2.4

percent in April and May. Substantial job gains among teenagers more than offset the usual seasonal rise in the number of 14-19 year-olds unemployed, reducing their jobless rate from 13.4 percent in May to 12.3 percent in June. Long-term unemployment (15 weeks or more) dropped sharply to 466,000 from 600,000 in May and 760,000 in June a year ago. State insured unemployment, which does not include new entrants to the labor force, totaled 785,000 in June, the lowest for any month since October 1953.

LARGE RISE IN NONFARM PAYROLL JOBS

Nonfarm payroll employment rose by 950,000 (325,000 more than seasonal) from May to 64.0 million in June, with all major industry divisions adding workers. The 3.1 million increase in the number of nonfarm payroll jobs from June 1965 was the greatest year-to-year gain since 1950-51.

FACTORY JOBS AT RECORD IN JUNE

Manufacturing employment was at an all-time high in June of 19.1 million. The 300,000 rise from May was 110,000 more than seasonal and concentrated in durable goods industries, particularly primary metals, machinery, and electrical equipment. Half of the over-the-year gain in factory jobs occurred in machinery, electrical equipment, and transportation equipment.

Average factory workweek and overtime, at 41.5 and 4.0 hours, were unchanged from May to June, as were hourly and weekly earnings of $2.70 and $112.05.

SECOND QUARTER EMPLOYMENT GROWTH SLOWER

In the second quarter of 1966, total employment averaged 74.2 million. Job gains of 1.8 million from a year earlier were concentrated among teenagers and women (950,000 and 700,000), whereas employment of men rose only 150,000. Total employment (seasonally adjusted) rose by 1.1 million from the third quarter of 1965 to the first quarter of 1966, while the gain from the first to second quarter of 1966 of 100,000 reflects a slower rate of growth. Compared with 3.8 percent in the January-March period, the unemployment rate averaged 3.9 percent, with the slight rise attributable entirely to women and teenagers. The teenage jobless rate edged up to 12.5 percent from 11.6 percent in the first quarter, when it was at its lowest quarterly level since January-March 1959. For women, the rate rose from 3.7 to 3.8 percent between the first and second quarters of 1966. Joblessness among nonwhites averaged 7.5 percent in the second quarter, compared with 7.1 percent in the first 3 months of 1966, and among whites the rate moved up from 3.4 to 3.5 percent. The nonwhite unemployment rate has fallen sharply but unevenly since late 1963, while the white rate moved down steadily.

Employment Service activities extend into picturesque Monument Valley.

Manpower Services on the Navajo Reservation

MILTON F. GRAF

Winds, including the winds of change, are blowing across the vast expanse of the Navajo Reservation. The Navajo Nation covers 25,000 square miles of extremely rugged terrain in northeastern Arizona, southern Utah, and northwestern New Mexico. The 15½ million acres in the reservation are equal to the combined areas of the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. A little over 100,000 Navajos, the largest Indian tribe in the United States and the largest minority group in Arizona, live in this vast area. Entirely within the Navajo Reservation is the Hopi Reservation of approximately 631,000 acres and a population of 5,000.

The Navajo Reservation has a broad spectrum of climatic and physiographic features. Climate varies from the cold, humid conditions in the high mountain ranges reaching 10,000 feet to the semi-arid, steppe-like plateaus and broad mesas where most of the population work and live, and to the desert conditions which prevail over 60 percent of the total area.

For hundreds of years, the Navajos have lived from the soil, cultivating beans, squash, and corn, and raising sheep, cattle, and horses. Shortages of irrigable land and the rapid expansion of the Navajo population did not allow the Navajos to become self-sufficient through agriculture. Less than half of 1 percent of the land is farmed by Indian families.

It is estimated that the land can support only about one-half of the present population. Consequently, many Navajos must find employment off the reservation, and such migration will continue unless industrial development on the reservation brings substantial amounts of economic opportunity. This is one of the fresh winds now blowing, as several large manufacturing firms are already established and others are surveying the potentials of the Navajo labor supply.

The Navajo Reservation has mineral resources, mostly leased to non-Indians, of uranium, oil, natural gas, and coal. The timber and lumber industry is chiefly a tribal enterprise, and very successful.

A person traversing the reservation from end to end on the principal routes of travel may come in contact with less than 1,000 resident Indians. Most of the Navajos live in small family groups near grazing lands quite remote from the main road. In recruiting activities, the interviewers contact the Indians individually, traveling over unimproved roads. Services rendered to the Navajo Reservation require over 200,000 miles of travel annually.

The Arizona State Employment Service, in providing full services to the Navajo Indian Reservation, has four branch offices on the Navajo Reservation (Tuba City, Kayenta, Ganado, and Chinle) and one on the Hopi Reservation (Keams Canyon). Two additional full-time offices, established in 1952, are maintained on the San Carlos Apache Reservation and the Reservation of the White Mountain Apache Tribe. The Tuba City and Kayenta branch offices are under the jurisdiction of the Flagstaff local office, and those at Keams Canyon, Chinle, and Ganado are supervised from the Winslow local office. Regularly scheduled itinerant service is rendered to various points from these branch offices. Additionally, many special trips are required to trading posts, villages, and to individual hogans (dwellings) for the purposes of recruiting and familiarizing Indian applicants with the services available.

In order to extend the best possible service, the Arizona State Employment Service staffs all branch offices with trained Indian interviewer-interpreters who understand the language, customs, and living habits of their fellow Indians. They have proved highly efficient in carrying out Employment Service responsibilities in their areas. One of these interviewer-interpreters has

Milton F. Graf is Northern District Supervisor, Arizona State Employment Service.

demonstrated the kind of ability and leadership which last year earned him the post of assistant manager of the Winslow local office.

The vast distances involved require special equipment. Each interviewer-interpreter is equipped with a half-ton pickup containing a two-way radio telephone operating on two channels, 35-gallon auxiliary fuel tank, loud speaker, shovels, chains, and a heavy-duty jack. Most of the travel is off-highway, and a large percentage of travel is over rough trails from hogan to hogan. In some seasons, the dirt roads become virtually impassable because of mud or sand. Sometimes Employment Service interviewer-interpreters have had to rely on the horse—standard model—to make contacts in their areas.

Much of the off-reservation placement activity for the Navajos is in seasonal agricultural employment. Many are occupied part of the year with their own farms and livestock, but at other times of the year they, and their families, are available for agricultural employment in Idaho, Utah, Colorado, California, and Arizona. Thousands of Navajos leave the reservation annually to plant, cultivate, and harvest the crops.

Recruiting these agricultural workers requires as many as three trips. A preliminary contact is made to make the job order known to the residents of an area. This requires personal contact at the hogan, at trading posts, and at chapter meetings. The second trip will ascertain the number of people willing to leave their homes for off-reservation agricultural employment. This may depend on what arrangements can be made for the care of their livestock and their crops. The third trip finalizes date and hour that transportation will be available at a particular location. Coordination is paramount. Perhaps another trip may be required to bring workers from remote points to the loading point. Further, religious ceremonies, such as medicine dances, and social ceremonies, such as squaw dances, must be integrated into the overall plan.

Navajo Indian workers generally prefer to work for employers who know them and have a knowledge of their diet and customs. Since the Navajo prefers to use his own language, the communication barrier is formidable. This has been overcome to a great degree in the agricultural areas of Arizona by the use of bilingual supervisory personnel. The Arizona State Employment Service has used seasonal employees from among the Navajos to act as liaison among the employer, the workers, and the Employment Service. Any incipient problems can then be solved before reaching the crisis stage.

Since the termination of the importation of Mexican Nationals under Public Law 78, the Arizona State Employment Service has intensified its efforts on the reservation. An intensive farm recruitment program was organized which ignored the clock and the calendar in supplying the Indian work force needed for lettuce preharvest and harvest activities. The Yuma area, the Nation's largest supplier of fresh lettuce, has now marketed three successive crops with marked success and profit without the need for a single Bracero. The Indian agricultural work force has helped to fill the gap.

Above and below, George James, Interviewer-Interpreter, at Chinle, screening Navajos for off-reservation agricultural work.

The ES Interviewer-Interpreter recruiting in the depths of Canyon de Chelly.

Another outstanding contribution made by the Indians has been forest fire fighting. During June 1966, 355 highly trained firefighters from the Hopi and Navajo Reservations were fighting major fires in three States. These tough, durable men are trained to fight fires alone or in groups, operate necessary equipment, use modern firefighting techniques, and, if necessary, parachute into the fire area. Over a period of 10 years, these crews have built a pride and esprit-de-corps second to none. Under an agreement with the U.S. Forest Service, the local Employment Service offices are subject to calls 24 hours a day, 365 days a year, in the event a fire emergency requires recruitment of these preferred firefighters.

In recent years, the Navajo Tribe has been making notable progress toward integrating its culture into increasingly important industrial developments. Since its first halting steps, when the looms of the Navajo women utilized their chief product, wool, and transformed it into rugs and blankets of extraordinary beauty and quality, industrialization of the reservation has been basic to the Navajo's economic life. The Navajo men also participated in the transition from total dependence on an inadequate agricultural base by developing the art of silverwork. Their fine designs and high quality work created a rapidly expanding market and this new art form became a part of Navajo culture and economics.

With the advent of better roads, transportation, and communications, the Navajos started on a program to develop their own resources. Slow but steady progress was made in the development of oil and gas resources, coal and mineral deposits, water supplies, and the half-million acres of Ponderosa pine ready for the saw.

Development of their own natural and human resources has supplied the finances and know-how to move into the next area—encouraging outside industry to locate plants on the reservation to utilize native skills and the reservoir of trained or trainable manpower.

The Arizona State Employment Service has cooperated closely with the Navajo Tribe, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Arizona Development Board, and prospective private industry in developing information, manpower, and training programs necessary to the ultimate success of an industrial enterprise. Our role has been to supply interested parties with the job market and manpower information necessary for decision-making purposes, to recruit, select, and refer qualified Navajos to operational work stations, to participate in the development and administration of applicable training programs, and to extend our services of testing and counseling to obtain and retain a successful and productive work force by the employer.

During the past year the Fairchild Semiconductor Corp. has built and staffed a plant at Shiprock, N. Mex., which builds silicon transistors—the tiny electronic components used in radios, television receivers, and computers. The Arizona and New Mexico Employment Services, in cooperation with the Employment Assistance office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, recruited and tested over a thousand Navajos to secure a work force which is remarkable for its productivity and low turnover.

This was the first time that Navajos had the opportunity to get and hold good industrial jobs in the land of their birth. The Navajo Reservation appears to be on the threshold of a new future. All the patience and and skill which have made the Navajos famous for fine rugs and exquisite jewelry is now being utilized in the race to the moon and potential visits to other planets.

The success of Fairchild Semiconductor at Shiprock has encouraged other firms to explore the potentials of the Navajo Reservation. Firms engaged in production of electronics, garments, and lumber products are especially adaptable to the conditions and resources in this vast area.

In April 1966, the Arizona State Employment Service hosted a tri-State conference on "Manpower Services to the Navajo Reservation," with participation at a high level from the Navajo Tribe, Bureau of Indian Affairs, U.S. Public Health Service, Utah Department of Employment Security, New Mexico State Employment Service, Arizona State Employment Service, leading industrial development experts from Arizona, and representatives of business and industry.

As a result of this conference, two immediate benefits accrued. An agreement was drawn, and later signed, which delineated the role and responsibilities of the six parties who have primary duties in developing manpower resources—the Navajo Tribe, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the State Employment Services of Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah, and the U.S. Public Health Service's Indian Health Division. This agreement will serve as a working blueprint under which all concerned parties can contribute to the fullest. The new agreement obviates a memorandum of understanding developed in 1952 implementing the national agreement between the Bureau of Employment Security and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

An additional result of the conference was the development of a Navajo Manpower Survey, which is now in the planning stage and may produce the necessary facts about the available human resources—a basic consideration for any interested industrial firm.

The winds of change blowing across the Navajo Nation may well leave their lasting impression on the economic life of every Navajo.

Nationally, Negro pupils have fewer of some of the facilities that seem to be related to academic achievement: they have less access to physics, chemistry, and language laboratories; there are fewer books per pupil in their libraries; their textbooks are less often in sufficient supply. To the extent that physical facilities are important to learning, such items appear to be more relevant than some others, such as cafeterias, in which the minority groups are at an advantage.

—From the Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education to the President and the Congress submitted in response to section 402 of the Civil Right Act of 1964.

YOC Radio-Thon

Intensive campaigning to secure summer jobs for youth has been a highlight of Youth Opportunity Center operations throughout the Nation. A wide variety of promotional activities has been undertaken to spur interest and action in hiring youth.

An outstanding example is a Radio-Thon sponsored by the Nashville, Tenn. YOC and Radio WLAC. The half-day program—from noon until 6 p.m.—was held in early May and attracted widespread interest throughout Middle Tennessee, producing many immediate job orders.

The Radio-Thon featured jobs-for-youth messages from the Governor, the Nashville Mayor, the Dean of Education at Tennessee A&I State University, the District Public Relations Manager of the Southern Bell Telephone & Telegraph Co., and the State Employment Security Commissioner.

Others making personal appeals during the Radio-Thon included well-known local personalities, as well as the Nashville YOC manager and WLAC staff members.

To help direct attention to the radio program and to the need for finding jobs for youth, the YOC manager had sent letters to several thousand employers in the Nashville area. The letters pointed out that some 16,000 young people in the area would be looking for summer jobs, most of them seeking career opportunities.

YOC's

Increasing numbers of young people are making use of the network of Youth Opportunity Centers, some for summer employment and many for help in getting their first full-time jobs. From the time the first reports were received in February 1965 through May 1966, the YOC's had a total of 848,600 new applicants. Of these, some 285,200 were given initial counseling interviews and 196,100 placements were made.

A "Radio-Thon" sponsored by the Youth Opportunity Center in Nashville and Radio WLAC. (Left to right) Manager W. L. Boswell, Area Youth Coordinator Mary E. Gore, and Chief Clerk Ada Crossett (standing) all of the YOC; Nashville Metropolitan Councilman Tom McGrath; State Rep. Mary Anderson; YOC Interviewer Richard Upchurch (standing); WLAC Host Ted Connor; and Larry Emswell of Junior Achievement, Inc. YOC Counselor Carr Grigg is in the control room at the rear.

During May, there were 117,300 new applications filed; more than 27,400 youth were given their first counseling interviews; some 38,000 were given aptitude or proficiency tests; and 21,800 placements were made—the highest number for any month so far.

In April—the latest month for which this information is available—53 percent of the new applicants were unemployed. This is explained in part by the fact that 39 percent of the new registrants were in high school, colleges, or other schools. Sixty-three percent of the new applicants had not finished high school. Also in April, the YOC's referred 4,800 youth to the Neighborhood Youth Corps, 2,700 to training under the Manpower Development and Training Act, and 2,200 to the Job Corps.

Volunteers

The number of volunteers helping out in the YOC's is growing steadily. Women's civic and professional clubs and local high schools and colleges have, in general, been the most productive sources of volunteer workers.

Some of the specific groups include: Community Improvement League; Community Relations Advisory Committee; League of Women Voters; Local Federation of Women's Clubs; Women in Community Service; Local Social Centers, and Service Corps of Retired Executives.

Volunteers perform a wide variety of useful jobs, such as:

Instructional Work.—Volunteer tutors teach remedial reading, writing, and arithmetic. Some volunteers who hold regular supervisory jobs, lead group sessions on how to find and apply for a job; others in sales jobs teach classes in sales techniques; and still others hold classes on grooming, how to select clothes, and other personal aspects important to boosting employability.

Outreach.—This is an important facet of volunteer work, particularly for those who know the neighborhoods and who also are fluent in a foreign language that may be spoken in the area. This has proved especially helpful in recruiting Job Corps candidates and Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees. In certain situations, the language fluency has been an important asset in talking with employers in a neighborhood. Volunteers doing outreach also contact schools and local service agencies to explain the YOC program, and distribute leaflets and posters.

The volunteers contribute much in many ways to bolster the YOC effectiveness. For example, they transport applicants to and from the YOC and referral establishments, escort groups on plant tours, work as receptionists, translate promotional materials into Spanish for Spanish-speaking areas, and even develop promotional materials.

A highly important volunteer activity is done by the WICS (Women in Community Service). Under Government contract, they screen candidates for the Women's Job Corps residence training. The group, incorporated in 1964, is made up of members of the National Council of Catholic Women, National Council of Jewish Women, National Council of Negro Women, and United Church Women. It had grown out of an informal partnership among representatives of these groups and the YWCA. The YWCA makes its contribution to the Job Corps program through the operation of a selected training center and through cooperation with local WICS groups.

A report from the San Francisco Bay area tells of the work done by WICS volunteers in Women's Job Corps screening. Since they first received the assignment in February 1965, 176 volunteers have been trained in outreach, screening, office procedure, and other aspects of their job. To date, the estimated number of contacts made to girls is 4,780. Of these, 135 were accepted for the Job Corps, 90 are now in training, and 5 have graduated.

The group works in close cooperation with the California State Employment Service and other agencies. Mrs. Kirk Whitehead, Bay Area Coordinator for WICS, says: "No agency has been more helpful than the California State Employment Service, in providing basic data on community resources, as well as training opportunities, providing well-informed speakers throughout the area of some 26 cities. The majority of referrals based upon considered interviews of job applicants has come from various CSES offices, as well as from welfare, probation agencies, and neighborhood centers and church-oriented institutions.

Job Prospects for New College Graduates

The job outlook for this year's crop of college graduates is bright in almost every field of endeavor, according to a statement issued recently by Labor Secretary W. Willard Wirtz.

The Secretary said that employers are offering jobs to graduates at a record pace, showing an interest in a wide range of candidates and offering higher starting salaries. Those trained in scientific and technical fields continue to rank in greatest demand. Graduates who have majored in various engineering specialties, chemistry, physics, and mathematics have excellent job prospects as do those seeking careers as accountants. There is a demand for teachers at all educational levels.

There are good opportunities for business administration and liberal arts graduates, as banks, insurance companies, government and other employers seek management trainees, programers, technical, and nontechnical sales personnel.

The Secretary pointed out that greater job opportunities exist for Negro and women graduates this year, and that equal opportunity is becoming a reality as employers recruit Negroes to fill openings in all fields of work. For women, jobs in mathematics, data processing, accounting, chemistry, and other natural sciences now supplement their traditional opportunities in elementary school teaching, library science, and counseling.

Outreach—

The Affirmative Approach

WADE H. FRANKLIN, III

The term "outreach" has become quite familiar to Employment Service personnel throughout the country. However, it has various meanings to different people and may be accomplished in many ways.

U.S. Employment Service guidelines for the operation of Youth Opportunity Centers states: "The staff of the centers will 'reach out' to youth not known to organized community sources. This recruitment will be conducted by representatives of the center, such as volunteers, youth advisors, etc., in places in the community where youth congregate: Street corners, recreational centers, settlement and neighborhood houses, etc., and through the use of public relations media."

The Farm Placement Section of the Ohio State Employment Service has made effective use of mobile outreach office units for the last 15 years. However, the Inter-Group Services Section (IGS) of the agency, sometimes called the minority group services section, has put the mobile units to new outreach use in the past year.

Wade H. Franklin, III, is Chief, Inter-Group Services, Ohio State Employment Service.

Ohio Governor James A. Rhodes being interviewed by television and radio newsmen at the door of the Outreach trailer as he kicked off the recruitment demonstration project in Toledo.

The initial effort in the use of a "mobile employment office" in areas of predominantly Negro population and high unemployment was in Cleveland in November 1965. A mobile employment office was set up next to one of Cleveland's Youth Opportunity Centers to serve as a temporary intake headquarters, so persons of this high unemployment area could avail themselves of the services offered.

The trailer was manned by nine staff members of the State Employment Service, all of whom were CAUSE graduates and had been trained for this type of program. Six members of the staff were field or community workers whose job it was to go into the neighborhoods to seek out unemployed persons and to tell them about the mobile office facility. The community workers concentrated on bars, poolhalls, street corners, and any other places where groups gather. The other three staff members worked as counselor-interviewers.

Another innovation was the use of a staff station wagon to transport to the ES offices in downtown Cleveland those persons reporting to the mobile employment office who needed further in-depth services.

This project is still in operation in Cleveland, occasionally relocating in various neighborhoods and is having good results.

In March of this year, the Employment Service took its mobile employment office to the two predominantly Negro colleges in Ohio—Central State University and adjacent Wilberforce University. During a 2-day period, seniors from these two universities were registered with the Employment Service with the understanding that they would be assisted in finding jobs in Ohio and elsewhere in the country through the network of State ES agencies. The seniors were told that special efforts would be made in their behalf with Plans for Progress Employers throughout Ohio and with the many Equal Employment Opportunity employers.

This project was very well received by the university officials and stu-

Central State and Wilberforce University students are assisted in completing their applications by Wade H. Franklin, Chief, Intergroup Services (second from left), and Harold J. Wright, IGS Field Representative (second from right).

A student is assisted in securing information on jobs in other areas of the country as Harold J. Wright, IGS Field Representative (left), and Camille Saucier, Dayton Clearance Representative, OSES, check the clearance inventory.

dents, and had good cooperation from the many EEO employers in the metropolitan areas of Ohio.

During April 1966, the IGS Section coordinated the activities of an outreach project with the Toledo local ES office.

A regular office evaluation of the Toledo area showed areas of high unemployment and heavy minority group population that were not making use of the Employment Service. Many of these people think, "The Employment Service is really not for me, except for menial jobs or those offered by the casual labor or spot labor offices." One of the gigantic tasks of the minority group services function throughout the country is to change that image of the ES in the minority groups communities.

Methods to reach these persons were discussed with leaders of community action groups, the local NAACP Chapter, the Community Center, and the Toledo local ES office. The operation and success of the Cleveland and university projects and the community cooperation they had received were discussed fully. The community leaders assisted in putting plans in motion to place two mobile employment offices in the areas of greatest need.

Through community cooperation, space was secured to place the two units in strategic locations, electrical hookup service was obtained free of charge through the community involvement commitment of the electric company, and the complete cooperation of the city government was offered to the Employment Service in its efforts to help Toledo's unemployed citizens.

During the 5-day demonstration project, 714 persons were registered, and 135 referrals were made directly from the mobile units.

A new approach, at least in Ohio, helped to make this project a success. The appearance of the Governor at the project's opening was of great value in public relations with the Toledo news media. Taped popular music was played over loud speakers during the hours of operation, and a local rhythm and blues, rock and roll radio disc jockey did a daily broadcast from one of the mobile units.

Community workers were dispersed throughout the neighborhoods being served to distribute handbills which explained the project and how it was attempting to serve the employment needs of the people.

The overall cooperation of employers, community leaders, the news media, and ES staff was tremendous.

Future plans indicate that we will be doing more "reaching out" in our efforts to take the Employment Service to more people in Ohio.

PROJECT UPLIFT

(*Continued from page 28*)

Winston-Salem, who enrolled in the cook's course. Nellie was 36 years old, married, and had three children. Her husband was a physically disabled share-crop farmer. In order to support the family, Nellie had worked as a cook's helper at 75 cents an hour. When she entered the project, her literacy level was that of a fourth grade student. After 20 weeks of training, it had risen to a seventh grade equivalency. She now works in a hospital as a cook and earns over $70 per week.

Examples like Oscar and Nellie can be cited many times. Not all of the graduates have been successful, but all have been helped. Nearly 70 percent of the total enrolled could not read at all or at no more than a fourth grade level, and many could not write their own names. Now all can read and write.

"Before we started the project, we thought teaching occupational skills was the most important thing, but now we know that literacy training outweighs all other factors," says the project Director.

No one connected with this project has any doubts about its success. It was a "second chance" to the 167 trainees who completed the program. It gave new hope where there had been no hope. For many, it gave a new outlook and the means to qualify for a better job and a better future.

Another Project Uplift is now in progress at A&T College. Project Uplift II, financed by a similar grant under MDTA, began January 4, 1966 with enrollment set at 175.

Involvement and community acceptance go hand-in-hand. In providing service to the disadvantaged, we find ourselves experimenting and searching for new and more effective techniques. Project Uplift was the beginning. Project efforts to develop tests and new techniques in reaching, teaching, and motivating the educationally, vocationally, and culturally disadvantaged may some day help eliminate the need for a "second chance" for all segments of our society.

Outreach in Rochester

EDWARD S. CROFT
and JERRY WILSON

After discussions with the residents and settlement house staff servicing the disadvantaged areas, the Rochester, N.Y. office, late in 1962, decided that a new approach was needed if the people with the most difficult job problems were to be reached. Since these people were suspicious of governmental agencies, we established outreach stations in the Human Relations Commission and the settlement houses in order to reach them. We soon found that, on occasion, it was necessary to go into the streets and homes in order to talk to these people and to get them to come to the outreach stations.

Even these efforts did not appear likely to reach a large body of economically and culturally deprived youth who did not come to the Employment Service for help in getting jobs and who seldom participated in neighborhood activities sponsored by settlement houses or by minority group organizations. Some of these youth either did not accept the leadership of minority group representatives or did not know them. How to establish contacts with these young people was a task requiring imagination, persistence, crusading zeal, and well directed action on the part of the Employment Service.

In 1963, we set up an outreach team recruited from staff who had the desire and background necessary to perform effectively in a new type of operation. The team, which was led by the senior manager for the first 2 years, is now a part of the YOC, although we also use an outreach team for adult programs when necessary.

Our outreach experiences indicated that successful recruiting and counseling of economically disadvantaged and culturally deprived youths required the staff to deal with a variety of problems with which they had little or no experience. They needed to learn how to engage in meaningful dialogues with youths whose outlook and attitudes reflect their feelings of insecurity and skepticism born of their fears, resentments, failures, frustrations, and unsatisfied desires. Some of the young people react by expressing their uncertainty and inadequacy. Others remain silent, and still others become belligerent. The major recurring problem is this: How to overcome the youths' built-in feelings of doubt, inadequacy, and suspicion.

Many of these youths are burdened with a variety of personal, family, and social problems that complicate the job problems created by their lack of education and occupational skills. Some professional settlement house workers believe that the only effective way of resolving their difficulties is through a family counselor who is equipped to deal with the whole range of family problems. Our own experience indicates that a young person's employment and training problems have to be approached within the context of the family and its environment.

The outreach workers learned quickly how to communicate in ways that were meaningful to these youths,

(*Continued on page 76*)

Edward S. Croft (center), New York State Division of Employment, and a team of workers in the Outreach Program in Rochester visited disadvantaged neighborhoods and wherever else they could locate young people, like the boy second from the right, who could benefit from Employment Service programs.

Edward S. Croft is Employment Service Supervisor and Jerry Wilson is a Community Worker in the New York Division of Employment.

MDTA Institutional Training of Nonwhites

JOHN MARSHALL

Suzanne N., a young Indian, left high school after 1 year. She later entered a school for beauty operators, but dropped out halfway through the course. Suzanne then worked for about a year as a babysitter and did hairdressing on an amateur basis, but her earnings were very low. As her responsibility for the welfare and support of a dependent increased, her interest in the work of a professional beauty operator revived, and Suzanne contacted a local public Employment Service office. She agreed to reenroll for a 22-week course in the same school she had attended previously. This was accomplished under MDTA training on a less-than-class-group basis. About 5 weeks after completing training, Suzanne began work in a small shop, which had been closed for several months because of the owner's illness. Starting compensation was a 50-percent commission with an option to purchase the business and equipment. Working as a single operator, 18-year-old Suzanne currently has sales of $80–$90 per week and the business is expanding rapidly. Potential shop income should net about $140 per week. Suzanne is negotiating for a long-term loan to purchase the beauty shop.

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Marshall W., a 20-year-old Negro, had left high school in the 11th grade, when he sought assistance in finding a job. However, the Employment Service interviewer believed that a job was not the basic answer to his problem. His school record showed poor marks and a lack of ambition to continue in school to attempt to raise them. Further, the record revealed that Marshall had difficulties with the school authorities, as he would not conform to rules. Salvaging a high school dropout is seldom easy, but the interviewer felt that Marshall would respond to help and encouragement. He was enrolled in a neighborhood work-crew program and did painting and various repair jobs for 8 months. From his work experience, Marshall learned to abide by rules and the value of occupational training. Then he entered a 10-week MDTA training course for duplicating machine operator and upon graduation was hired at a starting salary of $2.25 per hour. Marshall is now a printing room supervisor with two assistants and is earning $2.75 per hour.

Suzanne and Marshall are 2 of the more than 94,000 nonwhite persons who have participated in institutional training provided under the MDTA. Of this total, about 45 percent began training during 1965. Since the beginning of the program in September 1962, nonwhites have constituted about 31 percent of all institutional (inschool) trainees. While in 1965, about 20 percent of all the Nation's unemployed were nonwhite, the proportion of this racial group to all MDTA enrollees climbed to more than 34 percent. Participation of nonwhite women in the program increased sharply to 41 percent of all women enrolled in 1965, while the share of nonwhite men rose to 30 percent of all men entering MDTA training last year.

Half of all nonwhite enrollees were being trained in six States. Illinois, with 12,000, continued to have the largest number, and New York retained second place with 9,350. Four States—Michigan, California, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, in that order—each reported that between 4,500 and 7,500 nonwhite traineees had been enrolled in MDTA training through March 1966. Nine other States reported nonwhite enrollments of more than 2,000 since the beginning of the program.

More than 75 percent of the nonwhite enrollees in MDTA courses have received instruction leading to future employment in skilled, semiskilled, clerical and sales, or semiprofessional occupations. Prior to training, less than 30 percent of the nonwhites receiving MDTA training held jobs in these four categories. In contrast, before training, 37 percent of the nonwhite trainees had been employed in service or agricultural occupations; however, less than 25 percent were preparing for future employment in these two occupational groups through enrollment in MDTA courses. About 24 percent of the nonwhite enrollees had held unskilled jobs before entering training, and 9 percent had had no previous work experience.

During 1965, there were increases in the proportion of nonwhite men enrolled in semiskilled (31 percent) and clerical and sales (5 percent) occupational training, while slightly smaller shares were reported for courses in skilled (44 percent), serv-

A new employee receives on-the-job training in assembly work at Lockheed Aircraft. He is one of a number of trainees in an 8-week MDTA program.

ice (12 percent), agricultural (5 percent), and semiprofessional (3 percent) occupations. Among the courses having the largest numbers of nonwhite men last year were welder, general machine operator, automobile-service-station attendant/mechanic, automobile mechanic, automobile body repairman, janitor, cook, porter, draftsman, bricklayer, carpenter, butcher, gardener/groundskeeper, machinists, and landscape gardener.

The shares of nonwhite women enrollees were larger in 1965 than in 1964 for training in clerical and sales (47 percent), service (32 percent), and skilled (3 percent) occupations, but smaller proportions than last year entered training for future employment in the semiskilled and semiprofessional (9 percent each) categories. Among the training courses which had the largest enrollments of nonwhite women were clerk-typist, nurse aide, stenographer, licensed practical nurse, salesperson, key-punch operator, waitress, general office clerk, typist, hospital orderly, cook, and chambermaid.

About 84 percent of the nonwhite enrollees completing training courses obtained employment almost immediately following graduation from the MDTA program and more than 70 percent were employed at the time of last contact, each approximately 8 percentage points below comparable proportions of white graduates. At last contact, 75 percent of the nonwhite men and 68 percent of the nonwhite women completing training were employed.

Nonwhite trainees were employed at higher salary levels than before finishing courses of study under the MDTA program. More than 43 percent had earned less than $1.25 per hour prior to enrollment; however, only 20 percent were in this income category after training. Half had received pretraining wages of $1.25 to $2.49, but about 70 percent had attained this level of income in jobs after completing MDTA courses. Five percent of the nonwhite trainees had earnings of $2.50 or more per hour in their last employment while 10 percent were in this income bracket after training. The proportion of nonwhite trainees earning $1.25 per hour or more after training has climbed to about 80 percent, still below the 90 percent of the white MDTA graduates employed at wages at or above this level.

Characteristics of Trainees

Enrollment of nonwhite trainees in MDTA courses was almost evenly divided between men and women in 1965, compared with a 65-percent male enrollment among white trainees. Reflecting emphasis on the development of special training projects for disadvantaged youth, 43 percent of the nonwhite trainees enrolled last year were under 22 years of age (see table). This was 7 percentage

Characteristics of Nonwhite Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects

[Percent distribution]

	Calendar year	
	1965	*1964*
Sex	100.0	100.0
Male	51.8	53.6
Female	48.2	46.4
Family status	100.0	100.0
Head of family/household	52.6	51.7
Other	47.4	48.3
Age	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	15.9	14.5
19 to 21	27.2	27.9
22 to 44	50.8	51.9
45 and over	6.1	5.7
Education	100.0	100.0
Less than 8 years	7.1	7.4
8	7.8	7.0
9 to 11	39.2	37.8
12	40.5	41.6
Over 12	5.4	6.2
Gainful employment	100.0	100.0
Under 3 years	45.9	43.4
3 to 9	34.7	35.7
10 or more	19.4	20.9
Prior labor force status	100.0	100.0
Unemployed	87.7	90.3
Family farm worker	1.2	1.2
Labor force reentrant	2.3	0.5
Underemployed	8.8	8.0
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	29.2	28.0
5 to 14	21.9	22.5
15 to 26	13.9	12.8
27 to 52	12.2	12.0
Over 52	22.8	24.7

Source: USES and State Employment Services.

points above the proportion of this age group among all nonwhite unemployed in 1965. In contrast, the share of nonwhite MDTA trainees 45 years and over was only 6 percent, while this age bracket constituted almost 20 percent of all unemployed nonwhites.

MDTA For Undergraduates

Much remains to be done in expanding the participation of undereducated nonwhites in MDTA training. Only 7 percent of those enrolled in 1965 had less than 8 years of schooling, whereas 25 percent of all unemployed nonwhites are in this category. Nonwhite women trainees generally had more schooling than men. Only 3 percent of the women had not completed the eighth grade, while 60 percent had a high school diploma or better. Among the men, 10 percent had had less than 8 years of schooling and only about one-third had completed 12 years or more of school.

During 1965, nonwhites constituted 23 percent of all persons out of work 15 weeks or more, and 25 percent of those unemployed for more than 6 months. The MDTA program has been especially successful in reaching the long-term jobless nonwhites. About 38 percent of all MDTA trainees in 1965 who were jobless for 15 weeks or more prior to enrollment were nonwhites, and of all trainees unemployed for 6 months or more, 40 percent were nonwhite. Further, 16 percent of the nonwhite enrollees had received public assistance before enrollment, with the proportion of women in this category exceeding men 19 to 14 percent.

Reflecting the effects of the MDTA and other programs designed to provide increased training and educational opportunities to disadvantaged persons, as well as various measures to reduce hiring discrimination based on race, considerable progress has been made in the quality and quantity of nonwhite employment. Recent studies show that, over the past decade, the proportions of nonwhites in white-collar occupations—particularly in professional and technical fields as well as craftsmen and operatives—have risen significantly. Also, many corporations have developed programs to recruit nonwhites in greater numbers and for higher skilled jobs. Hence, employment and income of nonwhites have been rising at a faster rate than those for whites.

Despite these specific gains, however, the nonwhite worker's advances must be accelerated if the gap between his economic situation and that of the white worker is to be narrowed. For example, in addition to the concentration of nonwhite workers in the less desirable occupations and their much higher unemployment rate, the median nonwhite family income is little more than half that of white families. These facts clearly present a further challenge to the MDTA training program.

USES MAILBAG

Correction

In an article published in the June 1966 issue of the EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW under the title "Disabled Veterans from Vietnam," the author states the following:

"What will the war in Vietnam mean to the Employment Service program for disabled veterans? Dr. Beebe states that for the entire period of World War II, the chance of being wounded was 3.4 times that of being killed, and that the odds in other wars were more than 4. Slightly more than 9,000 men have died in Vietnam from July 1965 to the end of February 1966. If Beebe's ratios are applicable to Vietnam, there already are more than 30,000 living newly wounded men expecting to return to civilian life."

I just wonder what was the source for the author's statement that 9,000 men have died in Vietnam during the 8-month period from July 1965 to the end of February 1966. An official release by the Directorate for Statistical Services, Office of the Secretary of Defense, dated March 3, 1966, gives the following cumulative figures: (a) Casualties resulting from actions by hostile forces: killed—1,907; died of wounds—158, or died while missing or detained—270; a total of 2,335; (b) died not the result of actions by hostile forces—601. Thus, altogether, these cumulative figures, which cover the entire period from January 1, 1961 (not an 8-month period, as covered by author), indicate 2,936 deaths, which is about one-third of the figure given by the author.

Furthermore, according to the same release by the Department of Defense there were 11,574 casualties with nonfatal wounds. This again is about one-third of what the author estimated by unnecessarily using Dr. Beebe's ratios.

BERNARD D. KARPINOS
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The editor welcomes letters from readers for this department. Comments on published articles, requests for additional information, inquiries about the program or operations of the Employment Service and evaluation of its accomplishments, or suggestions for future articles might be appropriate subjects. We hope that there will be a steady stream of letters to the editor.

Demand Exceeds Supply For . . .

Engineers, Scientists, and Technicians*

ALVIN SAILE
and NORMA AUSMUS

Growing tightness in the nationwide job market for engineers, scientists, draftsmen, and technicians was reflected by operations of the public Employment Service system in the first quarter of 1966. Openings listed exceeded applicants registered in these occupations at the local Employment Service offices in major areas for the first time in the 8-year history of this series, according to the spring 1966 survey of supply-demand conditions for engineering and technical personnel conducted by the Employment Service system. Applicants available dropped to the lowest level on record, while openings listed reached a new high in March 1966.

Thirty major employment centers reported acceleration of the trend toward dwindling applicant supply and rising demand in the surveyed engineering, scientific, and related supporting occupations which began near the end of 1964. By March 1966, job openings at local Employment Service offices in the reporting areas climbed to 9,000, well above the previous peak demand period of mid-1962. The number of registered applicants continued its downward drift to 7,600—1,400 below the number of job openings. One year earlier, there had been well over two applicants, and 2 years earlier, as many as four applicants, for each opening.

Heightening stringencies in these occupations was accompanied by a marked increase in the out-of-area search for qualified manpower. Employment Service interarea recruitment operations—the system of matching jobseekers in one area with job openings in other areas—demonstrated that growing tightness in the technical manpower job market was not confined to the 30 reporting areas. During 1965, the share of interarea recruitment openings in the selected occupations that originated in other than the reporting areas rose from 53 percent to 61 percent of total openings. By May 1966, openings in interarea recruitment in these occupations totaled 7,000, an increase of some 70 percent from a year earlier.

Continued expansions of durable goods production, including commercial aircraft and consumer goods, spurred the increase in engineering, scientific, and technical job opportunities, especially those for mechanical engineers and draftsmen. Throughout 1965, the high level of expenditures for plant and equipment, as facilities expanded and improved technology was introduced, added to the growth in manpower demand. By the end of 1965, and in the early months of 1966, stepped-up defense and federally financed aerospace procurement further stimulated the search for technical personnel.

Stepped-up demand was especially keen for engineers capable of performing design functions. Closely related to rising production output were requirements for mechanical, aeronautical, and industrial engineers and draftsmen skilled in structural design, quality control, and cost analysis. Also expanded were requirements for civil and chemical engineers, architectural draftsmen, detailers, production illustrators, chemists, and chemist assistants. Vietnam commitments and aerospace activities accounted for many openings in research, product refinements and modifications, and testing. In addition to heightened shortages of technical personnel needed to produce an expanded volume of goods, unmet demands for aditional health service personnel also increased.

Applicant supply declined sharply in all of the surveyed occupations. Since the proportion of applicants available with college degrees remained relatively unchanged for engineers and scientists, nondegree applicants in these occupations found their proportionate share of job opportunities. Among the extremely low supply of applicants available in the early months of 1966 were some older retired persons seeking re-entry for part-time duties, young applicants facing draft calls, some alien students, and jobseekers with specific preferences as to pay, location of job, or with personality traits or work records that employers found undesirable.

The scarcity of applicants was reported to be causing an easing of hir-

(*Continued on page 77*)

Alvin Saile and Norma Ausmus are Labor Economists in the U.S. Employment Service.

*From the July 1966 issue of *The Current Employment Market for Engineers, Scientists, and Technicians.*

Employment Tests and Discriminatory Hiring

ROBERT M. GUION

The celebrated Myart v. Motorola case focused attention dramatically on the possibility that employment tests might be used, deliberately or inadvertently, as instruments of racial discrimination.[1] Paradoxically, the evidence of the case suggests that the test score apparently played only an obscure role in influencing the employment decision.

Nevertheless, many testers jumped to an immediate and often irrational defense of testing, and many critics of testing began to regard the employment test as the clever subterfuge of confirmed racists. Both reactions are unfortunate, and it is to be hoped that they will be superseded by a more realistic and moderate view. A less emotional appraisal of the current state of the art should bring forth certain admissions from both camps. Testers must admit that most companies using psychological tests in their employment procedures do not use them competently; more often than not tests are used with no knowledge at all of their validities for a particular situation. Conversely, critics must admit that other employment procedures are also typically misused and accepted on faith.

These remarks are devoted to test technology to the virtual exclusion of other employment procedures—with, I think, sufficient reason. Any procedure which can be used to discover, disprove, or verify claims of unfair discrimination through testing can also be applied to such other employment tools as interviewers' judgments, reference statements, or work histories. And let me clearly assert at the outset that despite many pitfalls, both obvious and hidden, competent psychological testing is better than any other hiring practice currently available. Such employment tools are designed to reduce the frequency of wrong decisions—hiring applicants who cannot do the job or rejecting those who could have done it well. Where tests have been used competently, they have been far more successful in reducing the number of mistakes than have, for example, such venerated practices as employment interviews.

The task of the tester is not to argue, but to develop procedures for reducing the mistakes still further. Now that our attention has been directed to the problem, it seems likely that many employment decision errors attributable to tests have resulted in unfair discrimination. There is no virtue in arguing whether this is so; investigation, not argument, is necessary for the task of minimizing such errors. The word is minimizing, not eliminating; it is unreasonable and unrealistic to expect perfection.

It should also be clearly understood at the outset that the target of this article is inadvertent discrimination. As Ash has pointed out, any competent psychologist who wishes to do so can easily develop a selection process that will discriminate in illegal ways.[2] The dedicated discriminator, like an assassin, will find a way, and it may be through testing. However, we can leave it to judicial process to deal with blatant, deliberate discrimination. Our first concern must be with the fact that it is so easy to stumble into illegal discrimination inadvertently. It is when there is uncertainty—when one honestly does not know whether a test is an instrument of illegal discrimination—that tester and adjudicator alike need guides to follow.

Principles of Employment Testing

Illegal discrimination is largely an ethical matter, but it should be recognized that the fulfillment of ethical responsibility begins with technical competence; it is not enough to "mean well."

Competence begins when one clarifies the variables in a given employment situation. Some variables—traits, ratings, test scores—are used in making employment decisions; these are called predictors. Others—performance, job satisfaction, survival on the job—may be used in evaluating the outcome of such decisions; these are called criteria.

Before any predictor variable is used as a basis for making decisions about actual people who apply for jobs, it should be evaluated against

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appropriate criteria by some sort of systematic research; the evaluation is known as validation.

Validation cannot be carried out unless both kinds of variables are specified. For example, the predictor to be validated may be a test or an interviewer's rating system. The appropriate outcome (criterion) may be long-range competence, or it may be supervisory ratings after 3 weeks on the job. Whatever the variables, the validation study ends with a translation of the predictor (e.g., test scores) into expectancies, i.e., statements of the probabilities of given criterion levels.[3]

Expectancies, of course, do not apply literally to individuals; they apply to groups. Even so, two things seem immediately obvious about the use of a test with such a level of validity: (1) Systematic use of the test in employment decisionmaking will result in an increase in the level of performance within the workforce, and (2) the number of selection errors—the hiring of people who cannot work satisfactorily or the rejecting of those who can—will be reduced.

Validation should not be just a matter of setting up expectancies from whatever data are conveniently at hand. Validation research requires systematic data collection and analysis according to several principles, some of which seem especially relevant to concern over potentially unfair discrimination.

1. *Tests must be validated as predictors.* This is the heart of competence in employment testing. Prediction is not to be confused with description. One applicant may be tall, thin, and dark-haired; another, short, fat, and blonde. Since these are easy descriptions, it may be assumed that they are valid as *descriptions*—but this does not make them valid as *predictors.* The descriptions are useful for predictive purposes only if height, obesity, and hair color show some relationship, singly or in combination, to identified outcomes and goals.

2. *Validities must be recognized as situation-bound.* One cannot assure, without further research, that the results of a validity study done in one setting would be found in another apparently similar setting. Competence calls for situational validities, and there are no substitutes. The requirement of situational validation is simply a recognition that the obtained evidence of validity is dependent on a wide variety of factors, many of which are probably unknown. Different validities can be expected in different populations, however; it follows that any new source of applicants demands that new validation data be obtained. Suppose, for example, that a company has been drawing applicants principally from an urban environment and begins to recruit among farm people. There is no assurance that the tests with high predictive validity in the urban group would have the same predictive validity, or any validity, for rural applicants.

3. *Validities of a predictor should be investigated.* A test may be highly valid for predicting quantity of output and have no validity at all for predicting quality. Worse, a test may do beautifully in predicting production level, with high scores indicating high levels of production, and also do beautifully in predicting turnover, with high scores also identifying those who will probably not stay on the job very long. Competent validation does not stop with a single correlation between test scores and a single criterion; it studies the relationship of test scores to all important outcomes.

4. *Even a valid test should not be the sole basis for decision.* No test, whatever the criterion, is perfectly valid. The lack of even theoretically perfect validity, along with the actual unreliability of both predictor and criteria, cast considerable doubt on the utility and wisdom of a single, rigidly established cutting score. Too often a cutting score is treated as if it were a magical number. Those achieving the score or exceeding it are the "good guys" and all others, even those barely below the score, are the "bad guys." The competent test specialist recognizes the standard error of measurement and worries about it. Because he worries, he looks for additional information about people, especially those who score somewhere near the critical score.

All of these general considerations of technical competence in testing relate to the specific question of unfair discrimination. It may be an interesting intellectual exercise to demonstrate that an applicant's general mental ability can be described—without contamination by cultural background—by a certain "culture-free" test, but such an exercise is not by itself of much practical value. The important question is whether the scores on the test have any utility for predicting subsequent outcomes. The answer to the question must be derived from data collected within the situation itself, because there are no scientifically generalized answers available. If special recruiting efforts bring in applicants from different populations, or if new problems call for predicting different kinds of outcomes, then validation requires research with each of the various populations and each of the various criteria. Finally, at the moment of decision on an individual applicant, the competent test specialist looks to the applicant's background and any other relevant information for guidance in interpreting the score: The score of a Negro high school dropout from a slum area may have somewhat different meaning from the same score obtained by the white, "respectably" educated son of the town's leading citizen—even if, for statistical purposes, both have been treated as coming from the same population.

Unfair Discrimination: Nature of the Problem

The employment plight of the Negro—"last hired, first fired"—is well-documented. During the last half century there have been advances in Negro employment opportunities without corresponding increases in relative incomes; in fact, the gap between Negro and white incomes seems to have widened during the fifties.[4]

This is not, by itself, direct evidence of discrimination. The fact is that Negro applicants are often less qualified than their white counterparts. The 1963 Report on Civil

Rights listed such reasons for Negro unemployment as "inadequate education, inferior job training, discrimination by private employers, and discrimination in the State and local administration of Federal programs." [5] A survey conducted under the auspices of Industrial Relations Counselors identified four areas in which Negro applicants generally seemed to be deficient: Scores on achievement and aptitude tests, attentiveness to grooming and general attitudes during selection interviews, educational background, and work experience.[6] It has been observed that few Negroes are employed at higher organizational levels. Once again, this is partly due to the scarcity of Negro personnel qualified for managerial and executive work. However, the shortage can be attributed to the fact that capable Negroes have rarely seen much point in preparing themselves for executive positions; as Whitlow has put it, "The teaching professions grew in interest to the Negro because of the fact that there were no alternatives. We either went into teaching or nothing." [7] Now that many companies are actively, and many quite sincerely, seek Negro managerial personnel, they must reckon with the consequences of the dry years which preceded the present situation in which it is a distinct advantage to be an intelligent Negro interested in professional management.[8]

That there is a vicious cycle is evident, and some employers are supporting or sponsoring programs to compensate for deficiencies in early experience. This is commendable, but neither law nor sound business practice demands it. However, both law and good sense demand that employers cease practices of unfair discrimination, including those that are inadvertent, which lead to unemployment. Perhaps the best way to break the cycle is to be sure that qualified Negroes get jobs they are qualified for.

Employment practice is by nature discriminatory, and it must be so. An employer cannot be expected to take on all applicants regardless of their qualifications; he is expected to be able to distinguish between those who are qualified and those who are not.

In talking about discrimination, then, a clear distinction must be made between discrimination which is necessary and right and discrimination which is unfair. *Unfair discrimination exists when persons with equal probabilities of success on the job have unequal probabilities of being hired for the job.*

Civil Rights Act of 1964: Title VII. It is against the law to discriminate on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex.[9] Despite some of the static from the Motorola incident, tests cannot be considered unlawful unless "intended *or used* to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin." [10] The phrase "or used" is especially interesting. When the courts interpret this phrase, a test will probably be considered unlawfully discriminating in any situation in which the *effect* is unlawful discrimination. The basic question is what constitutes an unlawful discriminatory effect. I propose that a reasonable interpretation of the law will hold a test to be illegally discriminatory only when a specified group exhibits inferior performance on the test, but *not* on the job for which the test is a predictor. Conversely, a test is not unlawfully discriminatory when a group characteristic that depresses test scores also tends to depress job performance.

Much is heard about the effect of cultural deprivation on test performance, but less is heard about the effect of cultural deprivation on job performance. As Ash has pointed out, "neither the Illinois Fair Employment Practices Act nor any other similar act protects 'culturally deprived persons' as such from discrimination in employment." [11] He went on to say that it is likely that complaining applicants, their attorneys, and the courts will become sophisticated enough to distinguish between standards of *test* performance and standards of *job* performance.

The principal implication of title VII, then, seems clear enough: Test specialists had better be able to make the same distinction! People using employment tests had better gather data to demonstrate that their tests are valid as predictors of relevant aspects of job behavior for all classes of applicants. And if these tests are found to be invalid, they ought not to be used.

Research on Discrimination

Thorough, competent validation is not especially easy. Research which combines the ordinary task of validation with the less charted task of research on discrimination accents ordinary problems and finds some new ones.

Perhaps the most serious problem is the almost universal willingness to use unvalidated tests. An utterly disgusting phrase is all too common: "We feel that our tests are very good." Such feelings may be comforting, but they serve neither as evidence nor as a substitute for knowing what one is doing. Even many companies that routinely validate their tests shy away from any kind of research dealing with racial discrimination; it is a potato that is much too hot. Whether because of fear or inertia, testers seem to be hoping that they will never be called upon for evidence that their tests are nondiscriminatory, rather than doing something to seek evidence one way or the other.

The criterion problem is stickier in research on discrimination than in ordinary validation. Most personnel research relies on ratings; the ratings of a potentially prejudiced supervisor can hardly be used in research on discrimination. Fortunately, some special criterion variables have been provided by folklore and some of them are not too difficult to measure. In the selection of salesmen or other public-contact personnel, for example, customer reaction may well be one criterion. Here ratings of customers seem justified, although observations of customer behavior would be better. Or it may be said that minority group applicants are more likely to quit their jobs; turnover is an appropriate criterion measure, as are other personal variables: Absenteeism, lateness, health and accident data, and so on. In general,

however, one should develop objective measures of the same criterion variables that would be used in any other validation research. Other considerations aside, the current emphasis on equal opportunity in employment will have immeasurable value simply because it will cause organizations to consider carefully the outcomes they seek through all of their employment practices.

Group Differences

Another problem is that there are differences in test performances of different ethnic groups. Although this fact should not be used as a smokescreen to obscure the matter of predictive validation, it does pose special problems—principally because of the lack of scientific understanding of the basis of such differences. Group differences are often attributed to cultural deprivation. This is probably due to contemporary concern with Negro applicants who, a century after the Emancipation Proclamation, still carry with them the vestigial remains of slavery. Test differences are also found, however, for Jewish, Oriental, and certain national groups. Some of these groups may be culturally favored in some respects; others may have their own rich, though different, sorts of cultures. Can these differences be attributed to "cultural deprivation"?

Too much has been said about cultural *deprivation*, not enough about cultural *difference*. Certainly the ghetto and its attendant lack of communication with the outside—even when schools are integrated—fossilizes cultural differences. Some of the population differences may be due to suspiciousness; what has passed for cultural deprivation may be better described as cultural alienation. While the choice of term—deprivation, difference, or alienation—becomes relatively unimportant for the search for evidence of predictive validity, the question of cause poses genuine, long-range research problems.

For one thing, the nature of the differences in test performance needs to be better established. One should be rather cautious, for example, about such statements as "on the average, Negroes score lower than whites." The fact that this has generally been true may be more a reflection of test specialists' lack of imagination than of any underlying reality. It has been noted for several years that research on individual differences has been done with a rather archaic notion of the nature of intelligence. Dreger and Miller cite a study showing (among four ethnic groups each divided into low- and middle-class subgroups) differential patterns of scores on factorial test batteries.[12] The direction of differences between groups may prove to be much less important in future research than the kinds or patterns of differences that exist.

Recruiting

A further research problem is that of recruiting. In many organizations, there will be no opportunity to do any research at all unless there is a special effort to recruit from minority groups. For example, it has been shown that there is often a discrepancy between the attitudes of top management toward hiring Jewish college graduates and the actual practice of campus recruiters.[13] Clearly, managements must take unusual steps if they are to convince their recruiters that they are sincere in an equal opportunity program.

If a manager is embarking on a new push to hire Negroes, he must advertise in Negro periodicals, he must make direct contact with local Negro organizations, and he should have personal contact with leaders of the Negro community. These are extraordinary recruiting procedures: The result is an extraordinary applicant population. If there are differences in validity, should these differences be attributed to racial differences or to differences in the recruiting procedures?

Despite the many problems and questions, the research must be done if an organization is to know whether it is guilty of unfair discrimination in its employment tests. There are several research models which can be used.

The use of moderator variables. A moderator variable may markedly influence validity. Most moderator variables have been used to describe or define differences between two or more groups which may have different patterns of validity. In a pioneer study, for example, Frederiksen and Melville classified college students as either compulsive or noncompulsive and found interest test scores significantly more valid for the noncompulsive group. Compulsiveness in this example is a moderator variable; it "moderates" the effect of interest on academic performance.

Elsewhere, I have advocated investigating race as a moderator variable and suggested that different expectancy tables be developed for Negro and white applicants.[14] Where distinctly different validities are found, hiring standards expressed as minimum test scores constitute unfair discrimination.

The unfairness will be more apparent if one will visualize a hypothetical example. Suppose, for whites, a linear relationship between test scores and the expectancy of success on the job. To be specific, consider a case where test scores of 10, 25, 40, 55, 70, 85, and 100 are associated with expectancies of .20, .30, .40, .50, and so on up to .80, respectively. For Negroes, however, consider a validity with a different kind of relationship where scores of 10, 15, 22, 32, 45, 60, and 78 are associated with the same series of expectancies from .20 to .80. If the minimum cutting score were 10 for both populations, there would be no unfair discrimination because in either case the expectancy is .2 (i.e., 2 chances in 10 of being successful by whatever definition of successful is used). If the minimum test score were 55, however, the test in this case would be an instrument of unfair racial discrimination; a white applicant with a score of 55 has a .5 expectancy of success and would be hired, but a Negro applicant with a lower test score of 45 would be rejected even though his probability of success would be higher, .6. To parallel the definition, a Negro applicant and a white applicant with equal probabilities of success on the job do *not* have equal probabilities of being hired, in this example, if the same minimum score is applied to both.

Other moderator variables could be substituted for race—with, of course, the proviso that they can be shown to be relevant to the legal issues as well as to scientific investigation. Measures of cultural deprivation should certainly be investigated; Lockwood has proposed the use of personal history or motivational variables as potential moderators.[15] Ignoring the pressure of the legal issues for the moment, it seems likely that some of these might ultimately serve better than race as moderators.

There are several objections to, or potential restrictions on, the moderator variable approach. If race is to be the moderator, one stumbles immediately over the scientific difficulty of establishing clear yardsticks by which people can be classified into convenient racial categories. Returning to the legal pressures, however, and to the social problems which precipitated them, such yardsticks do not seem to be a really serious problem for the test specialist. He can classify as Negro anyone whom an employment interviewer so identifies; and he can do the same in classifying others as whites. Discrimination is not such a big problem to those Negroes who can be identified as such only by their own statements, genetic histories, or anthropological measurements.

A more general limitation to the moderator variable approach has been identified by Campbell. He distinguishes between indirect validity, where the trait measured is related to job success but not essential to it, and intrinsic validity, where any factor changing test performance (such as training) also changes job performance. He points out that the value of moderator variables is probably limited to situations of indirect validity.[16] Parenthetically, it might be noted that most employment tests fit this category—a fact of which employment testers are not very proud.

Practical Problems

A practical objection is that the moderator variable approach intensifies two ordinary and difficult validation problems. The first of these is the frequent inability to identify the criterion variables; the second is the more prosaic problem of finding enough cases. It is not easy to find situations in which both Negroes and whites are being hired to do the same type of work at a rapid enough rate to gather the kind of data that one would desire.

Use of culture-free tests. Some investigators, assuming that unfair discrimination has cultural deprivation at its roots, are looking for ways to utilize the so-called culture-free tests. The use of such a test by itself does not seem to be very promising; however, culture-free tests might be used as something other than straightforward predictors. For example, such tests might be used where scores are marginal on ordinarily valid tests. The procedure would be to identify, probably in standard error terms, the range of scores around a cutting score in which additional information should be sought. That information would include the score on a culture-free test. The original test and the culture-free test, expressed in standard score units, would be compared. The degree of discrepancy between the two could be a measure of cultural deprivation; such a measure could be a moderator or it could, by itself, prove to be a valid predictor. Since these tests are typically measures of intelligence, their use seems especially worth considering where the criterion is trainability.

Compensatory models. Traditional prediction through multiple regression has been essentially compensatory; a deficiency in one characteristic can be overcome in the equation by an overabundance of some other characteristics. The compensatory model has worked in a wide variety of situations; it might well be the most useful solution to the problem of unfair racial discrimination in testing. Essentially, what is needed is an identification of the variables through which an individual can overcome an initial handicap that he may have, from whatever cause.

Traditional multiple regression can also be combined with the moderator variable idea for a different sort of compensation. That is, a variable might be identified that is relevant to one group and not to another; it might, where it is relevant, compensate for "underqualification." For example, commitment to the civil rights movement might, for a Negro youth, be the sort of motivational variable that could be called "the Avis syndrome"—being number two, he tries harder! Perhaps the discrepancy between an applicant's level of aspiration and the father's occupational level could be measured and used in multiple prediction equations for one or both groups.

Coaching. Altthough the idea of coaching people on tests is usually repugnant to test specialists, there have been some indications that it might be useful. Hay once developed a "warm-up" test that served somewhat as a coaching device.[17] In an unpublished study, this writer once improved the validity of a psychomotor test by providing enough preliminary practice trials so that learning tended to level off by the time a trial was officially "scored." Perhaps more to the point, it has been shown in Israel (where there are wide individual differences in exposure to test and testlike situations) that straightforward coaching increases the validity of intelligence tests.[18]

The outlook in research. There is no evidence now available to indicate which models will be most useful for finding and eliminating unfair discrimination in testing; nor will such evidence become available until more equal-opportunity employers conduct the necessary research and publish the results. It is easy to be pessimistic and wonder whether the research will get done. If it is done, however, one can say quite optimistically that one byproduct will be a general improvement in the state of test technology. At the very least, such research should result in a technically defensible individualization of employment testing in contrast to the more conventional group orientation. Furthermore, it is reasonable to hope that such research will move toward the identification of predictors with intrinsic validities.

[1] *"Hiring tests wait for the score; Myart vs. Motorola," Business Week, Feb. 13, 1965, pp. 45–46, Less easily obtainable, but much more detailed and complete is the account by Robert L. French, "The Motorola Case," Industrial Psychologist, II (August 1965), 20–50.*

[2] *Philip Ash, "The Implications of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 for Psychological Assessment in Industry," presented in the symposium, Legal Issues Which Confront the Psychologist and the Community, at the Convention of the American Psychological Association in Chicago, Sept. 5, 1965.*

[3] *Validation is commonly carried out in terms of statistical summary statements, such as correlations or significance levels. This is only half of the task; validation is incomplete if it does not also provide a means for predicting whatever criterion is used. Where validity is determined by correlations, prediction can be based on regression equations; expectancy tables are, however, superior in several respects to prediction from such equations. This is, of course, a dogmatic assertion of the rightness of my own preferences. For the sake of both brevity and clarity, I have been equally dogmatic throughout the discussion of competence without bothering to justify my assertions. For a more complete presentation of my views, see my text, Personnel Testing (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965). The arguments concerning expectancies may be found on pp. 148–157.*

[4] *Daniel E. Diamond, "Occupational Shifts in Negro Employment," Business Topics, XII (summer, 1965), pp. 32–44.*

[5] Civil Rights '63, *U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (Washington, D.C., 1963) p. 90.*

[6] *Paul H. Norgren, Albert N. Webster, Roger D. Borgeson, and Maud B. Patten,* Employing the Negro in American Industry: A Study of Management Practices, *Industrial Relations Monograph No. 17 (New York: Industrial Relations Counselors, 1959).*

[7] *Edward W. Whitlow, "The Placement of Negro College Graduates in Business Organizations,"* in Selecting and Training Negroes for Managerial Positions *(Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1964), pp. 41–50.*

[8] *Robert Mallory, "On-the-Job Experiences of Negro Managers," ibid, pp. 131–134.*

[9] *People who have not bothered to look at the provisions of the law have been making some rather unfunny jokes about female attendants in men's rooms or male "bunnies" in nightclubs or Nordic blondes playing the parts of African tribal rulers—as if all of these absurdities were made necessary by adherence to the law. Special requirements of sex, religion, or national origin are clearly permitted in circumstances where they are explicitly relevant and necessary for a particular lawful enterprise.*

[10] *Tower amendment to the 1964 Civil Rights Act, as quoted by Ash,* op. cit., *italics mine.*

[11] *Ash,* loc. cit.

[12] *Ralph Mason Dreger and Kent S. Miller,* Recent Research in Psychological Comparisons of Negroes and Whites in the United States, *presented at the convention of the Southeastern Psychological Association in Atlanta, Apr. 2, 1965.*

[13] *Lewis B. Ward, "The Ethnics of Executive Selection,"* Harvard Business *Review, XLIII (March–April 1965) pp. 6–8.*

[14] *Guion,* op. cit. *pp. 491–493. This is not an unusual suggestion; however it is usually offered in terms of different regressions rather than different expectancies.*

[15] *Howard C. Lockwood, "Testing Minority Applicants for Employment,"* Personnel Journal, *XLIV (July–August 1965), pp. 356–360.*

[16] *Joel T. Campbell, "The Problem of Cultural Bias in Selection: I. Background and Literature,"* Selecting and Training Negroes . . ., *pp. 57–64.*

[17] *Edward N. Hay, "A Warm-up Test,"* Personnel Psychology, *III (summer 1950), pp. 221–223.*

[18] *Gina R. Ortar, "Improving Test Validity by Coaching,"* Educational Research, *II (June 1960), pp. 137–142.*

OUTREACH IN ROCHESTER

(Continued from page 66)

for there are likely to be wide language and cultural gaps between staff members and the severely disadvantaged. Many of them have their own vernacular.

We found that even though meaningful communication had been established between an Employment Service worker and a disadvantaged youth, a good rule for the staff member to follow was to avoid saying that he understands the youth's feelings or his problems. The youth is well aware that the staff member has not been subjected to his experiences and could not really "know" how he feels about them. There is no translucent light that will reveal the "anatomy" of these experiences and the effects they have produced. The counselor faces an almost insurmountable difficulty in imaginatively projecting his consciousness into that of one of these youths. Even under the best of circumstances, few of us possess the gift of being able to put ourselves "inside other men's skins."

If they were to accomplish their missions, staff members assigned to the outreach team soon found that they must be constantly alert to the consequences of failure to reach these youths. Unless they could be motivated to acquire the occupational skills necessary to get and hold jobs that offer promotional possibilities, the youths were likely to lose interest in improving their situation and to revert to the status of casual and unskilled labor or to chronic unemployment and dependency.

If staff members are to succeed in their work, they must be torch bearers for a cause they believe in. There must be a felt necessity for doing everything possible to advance that cause—as well as personal involvement in the "doing."

Not all of our contacts and experiences have been with those living in poverty. We have discovered that a youngster need not be economically impoverished to be deprived. For example, a young woman, who had obtained the necessary skill for employment as a stenographer, came to our office on the suggestion of a friend. Because of a speech problem, she could not express herself well. She used good grammar, but experienced trouble with vowels. We made tentative arrangements for her to report to the Youth Office 2 days a week for a 1-hour session with a counselor. Later we included her in a group discussion, where she showed significant development in speech and has since obtained employment and is doing well.

Another example of the deprived youth who is not necessarily financially impoverished is that of a young man who had personality or attitudinal problems. After this young man was ordered out of school, he was referred to the Youth Opportunity Center by a youth advisor who contacted him standing idly on street corners. His behavior was negative and hostile. Several months were spent working with him in an effort to get him back in school, and to help change hostility into an awareness and development of the abilities he possessed. In February of this year, the young man graduated from high school. Before that day, many hours were spent helping him to discover himself. After graduation he reported to the youth advisor, "I feel

confident I can find a job; if you don't mind, I would like to try alone." This he did, and he has been hired at one of the large industrial plants as a printer apprentice. Two weeks ago, this youngster was in our office to show us his salary check in the amount of $80. He announced that he intended to save a portion of his salary to further his education at a technical school next semester.

A young woman, 17 years of age, was in one of the detention homes for third-degree assault. She did not come from a financially deprived home, but rather from a very modest suburban area. Her mother wrote to us, after hearing a talk about MDTA by one of our counselors. This was the beginning of 5 months' work. After corresponding with the young lady, we contacted the parole officer and arranged to have the young woman take the high school equivalency test. We then made arrangements to have her take the GATB test at the YOC, pending the parole board decision. We called her mother many times and talked about the girl's interests. The young lady was released, and reported to the YOC office. We had two informal talks and we scheduled an appointment with a counselor. She was subsequently assigned to MDTA training, where she is doing well. She has artistic ability and has been using this talent in the Manpower Training Center where she is presently working on a mural for the school.

Our outreach and outstation staff also arrange career nights for parents and youths, trips to industrial plants for youths, civil service tutoring courses, and many other activities required to place the disadvantaged in jobs or training.

Outreach in Rochester has provided one answer to the question of how to establish purposeful contacts with "the youth in the street." The Employment Service has been able to find and influence groups of untrained young people who live in isolation in low-income neighborhoods. It has brought many of them out of that isolation and put them into MDTA courses and jobs.

Unusual Projects Aid Minority Workers

Operation SER (Services, Employment, and Redevelopment), a new and unusual demonstration program designed to break the cultural and economic barriers to full employment for 3 million Spanish-Americans in Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, was recently announced by the U.S. Department of Labor and the Office of Economic Opportunity. Financed under a joint grant of the two Federal agencies, the project will explore new approaches to employment, increased earning power, and improved living standards for those in the Southwest who face unique problems largely because of cultural differences. The grant will be administered by Jobs for Progress, Inc., a nonprofit organization jointly sponsored by the League of United Latin American Citizens and the American G.I. Forum of the United States. A single centralized regional service will be established to provide assistance for Jobs for Progress Centers in the five States, each programing training, placement, and relocation services.

SER will provide prevocational guidance, remedial education, and relocation services for the Spanish-speaking community while assisting State, industry, and the Federal Government in recruitment. A regional skills bank created from the network of Jobs for Progress Centers will maintain an inventory of professional, technical, skilled, and semiskilled persons for employment throughout the five-State region.

These centers will draw into manpower, development, and training programs, community action programs, on-the-job training projects, and prevocational courses large numbers of persons not now reached through more conventional approaches. Sharply increased utilization by Spanish-Americans of the U.S. Employment Service and affiliated State agencies is expected through their close cooperation with SER.

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The membership of the International Union of Electrical Workers will conduct a person-to-person, door-to-door campaign to seek out 1,500 hard-core unemployed and underemployed persons for on-the-job training by electrical manufacturing firms. A massive recruitment drive of the IUEW is being launched in Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, New York, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Indianapolis, Boston, Newark, and Springfield (Mass.), and will be conducted under a Labor Department contract.

The IUEW is the first international union to adopt a program to bring into national programs those disadvantaged persons whom they are designed to help.

Occupational Developments

(*Continued from page 70*)

ing specifications by some employers, particularly in the drafting and engineering specialties. During the closing months of 1965, there was evidence of relaxed age limits and experience requirements, increased acceptance of noncitizens, and plentiful entry level assignments for inexperienced college graduates. Inplant training to upgrade employees was being increased and there was greater acceptance of and more call for Government-sponsored training of supporting personnel. Employers were utilizing ingenious recruiting methods and were contacting college placement services earlier than usual. In addition, many jobseekers appeared to be succeeding in efforts to find satisfactory employment without recourse to local public Employment Service offices.

53rd Annual Convention of the IAPES . . .

Employment Security—Opportunity for All

BENJAMIN H. COHEN

Under Secretary of Labor John F. Henning keynoted the 1966 meeting of the International Association of Personnel in Employment Security, held in Pittsburgh July 5–8, by pointing to our rapid economic growth and high employment and the need to place additional emphasis on correcting the weaknesses of our system. "We must continue," he said, "to use the tools at our disposal not only to keep it this way but also to bring us closer to our goal of full employment through MDTA and other job training programs for the unskilled, the underprivileged, the handicapped, and minority groups."

Robert C. Goodwin, Bureau of Employment Security Administrator, stated that we face new challenges, which stem from a basic change in concepts, involving manpower planning and development of manpower resources rather than merely filling job vacancies with available qualified job applicants. Mr. Goodwin further stressed the importance of helping young people enter the job market and the services provided them through the Youth Opportunity Centers.

USES Director Frank H. Cassell outlined the new directions for the USES. "The nature of the job has shifted," he said, "from creating sufficient jobs for men in their prime working years to that of increasing the employability of the unemployed and the underemployed so their potential can be made available to match the type of jobs going unfilled for lack of qualified workers. . . . In its new role as a manpower agency, the Employment Service is concerned not only with manpower utilization but also with the preparation and development of human resources through education and training."

Mr. Cassell pointed to two urgent needs for ES personnel: "(1) We must learn better to understand ourselves—our potentials, our limitations, our capabilities, and how we can improve; (2) We must develop far greater insight, knowledge, and understanding of all of the people with whom we deal."

Dr. Eli Ginsberg, Director, Conservation of Human Resources Department, Columbia University, said, "It is clear that the Employment Service must play a leading role in the continued manpower policy in this country. The Employment Service must be stronger and the State-Federal relationship must lend itself to greater cooperation with local community agencies, both governmental and nongovernmental, because the States cannot go it alone." Dr. Ginsberg added: "There exists an inaccessability to services and inequality towards minority races which must be overcome before the Employmentment Service can proceed elsewhere."

According to Claude Callegary, DAV National Commander, "The returnees from Vietnam will not be the boys who were sent there. They will have a new awareness and a desire for changes assuring better opportunities for a more equitable life. Many will need employment services to help guide the way, and countless handicapped will need special aid."

United Steel Workers' President I. W. Abel said he feels that there is a disturbing restlessness among the American people; that we have reached a new plateau in our economy, "where we know that everyone can be well housed, well fed, well clothed, but as yet have not achieved this goal." "A man's job is his link to economic security," he said.

Whitney M. Young, Jr., Executive Director, National Urban League, in an eloquent plea for unanimity of purpose, said, "Unless we spread the fruits of our society to all people, we will die in the 'diamond mine of materialism'—we would conceivably become the first society to go from barbarism to decadence without a civilization. At this point, with these laws (Civil Rights) and these new interpretations, you in the Employment Service can make an impressive advance in human justice. . . . You are on trial—you are an eagle. Lift your sights, set your minds, and fly."

The association honored Ewan Clague, former Commissioner of Labor Statistics, with its highest award, The Citation of Merit, for his outstanding contribution to the employment security programs during his tenure of office.

The new officers for the 1966–67 term are: President, James Carter, Alabama; First Vice President, Haakon Haughness, Idaho; Second Vice President, Myrtle Fowler, Louisiana; Secretary, Theresia Eberling, Missouri; Treasurer, Dee Reese, Arizona. The 1967 convention will be held in Richmond, Va.

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RECOMMENDATIONS OF PANEL

(*Continued from page 56*)

K. The USES traditionally has been oriented toward service to the employer. Recent emphasis within the USES has stressed service to individuals, particularly the disadvantaged. The USES, in serving this new emphasis, must not lose sight of the necessity for providing the employer with a suitable applicant for a specified job opening.

These recommendations are currently being studied to determine further action.

May Job Openings and Placements Up

Public Employment Service offices made some 567,600 placements of persons in nonfarm jobs in May, a less-than-seasonal increase of 6.5 percent from April, but a 0.9 percent decline from the year earlier. The May placement total was at the lowest level for the month in 5 years.

Youth placements, at 140,900 in May, rose 1.4 percent from a year ago. For the first 5 months of 1966, placements totaled 2,560,200, 4.1 percent more than in the same period a year ago.

Twenty-seven States had over-the-year declines in placements in May, with New York's 6,200, or 8.7 percent, drop more than accounting for the national decrease of 5,400. The decline in New York was centered in household placements in the New York City Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, where both household service openings and applicants declined.

Placements by Occupation and Industry

While all occupational groups showed placement advances over the month, they were generally less than expected at this time of year. Over the year, all occupational groups except service and skilled scored placement increases, with the largest in professional—up 8.7 percent, and semiskilled—up 8.5 percent. Among industry divisions, the durable goods sector of manufacturing, with 79,200 May placements, registered a 20 percent gain from a year earlier, paced by the continuing advance in fabricated metals, machinery, and transportation equipment. The nondurable goods manufacturing industries, public utilities, and government also registered moderate over-the-year advances, while construction, trade, and services showed declines. In services, the household sector recorded a 12.4 percent decline from a year ago.

New Applications Rise

New applications filed in local offices in May by persons looking for work totaled 906,100, up 12.5 percent from April and 1.8 percent from last May and the highest for the month since first available records in 1946. The rise in youth applications, however, was 28.2 percent from the previous month and 10.1 percent from a year ago to 437,600. A larger number of summer jobseekers and the earlier start this year of the "Youth Opportunity Campaign" were in great part responsible for the over-the-month upsurge in youth applicants.

Although new job applications filed by youth rose sharply from last year, applications from adults, as for many months past, continued their over-the-year decline, dropping 4.9 percent from a year earlier. Applicants now available to local offices

Nonfarm Placements in the United States [1] and in the 56 Largest Metropolitan Areas by Occupation and Industry, May 1966

Occupation and industry	Placements				Percent distribution	
	United States		56 areas			
	Total	Percent change from year ago	Total	Percent change from year ago	Total United States	56 areas
Total [2]	567,600	−0.9	275,800	−0.4	100.0	100.0
Occupation:						
Professional and managerial	22,800	+8.7	17,200	+12.5	4.0	6.3
Clerical and sales	72,200	+2.4	38,200	+3.9	12.7	13.8
Service	175,300	−9.3	93,100	−10.2	30.9	33.8
Skilled	25,900	−10.9	11,800	−13.2	4.6	4.3
Semiskilled	85,400	+8.5	33,900	+2.1	15.0	12.3
Unskilled and other	186,100	+3.1	81,500	+9.8	32.8	29.6
Industry:						
Construction	40,600	−13.0	12,900	−13.0	7.2	4.7
Manufacturing	146,100	+15.6	64,900	+14.3	25.7	23.5
Durable goods	79,200	+20.0	37,800	+20.9	13.9	13.7
Nondurable goods	66,900	+10.8	27,100	+6.3	11.8	9.8
Transportation and other public utilities	21,500	+14.9	9,400	+22.5	3.8	3.4
Trade	123,500	−0.9	60,600	+2.9	21.8	22.0
Services	203,400	−8.8	114,300	−9.0	35.8	41.4
Nonhousehold	92,300	−4.0	54,200	−4.4	16.3	19.7
Household	111,200	−12.4	60,100	−12.8	19.6	21.8
Government	18,700	+0.6	7,400	+12.2	3.3	2.7
Other	13,900	+7.8	6,300	−2.9	2.4	2.3

[1] Includes Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands.
[2] Items may not add to total due to rounding.

Source: U.S. Employment Service, based on data from affiliated State Employment Services.

generally have lower skill and training qualifications, according to reports from a large number of States.

Other Job Market Indicators

Job openings received, rose 6.6 percent above May a year ago and, at 850,300, were the highest for the month since first available records in 1945. *Openings unfilled* at the end of the month totaled 511,100, 49.7 percent above last May, and the most for any month since October 1946. Job openings available (received during May plus unfilled openings carried over from April) totaled 1.3 million, up 20.1 percent from last May.

Factory turnover rates (adjusted for seasonality) also reflect the tighter job market situation. New hires this month were 39 per thousand employed workers, up from 29 per thousand a year ago and the highest May rate since 1953, according to Bureau of Labor Statistics reports. Quits were also highest for the month since 1953, rising from 17 to 24 per thousand employed over the year, while layoffs, at 10 per thousand—the lowest for the month since 1958—were down from 14 per thousand a year ago. At the same time, the placement penetration rate in manufacturing has shown, for many months, a constant decline from a year ago as some States report many openings cannot be filled for lack of qualified applicants.

Counseling and Testing

In May, 105,300 individuals were initially counseled, 5.8 percent more than last year. Total counseling interviews given, at 204,100, were up 13.1 percent from last year. Reflecting their special needs, 1 in 7 of the youth applicants were initially counseled in April, compared with 1 in every 12 adults.

About 253,000 aptitude and performance tests were administered in May, up 13.3 percent from the preceding month, but down 0.5 percent from a year earlier.

ES Activities in the 56 Major SMSA's

In the 56 largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, nonfarm placements in May totaled 275,800, up 4.1 percent from April but down slightly (0.4 percent) from a year ago. All but two occupational groups recorded over-the-year increases. The professional group gained 12.5 percent, compared with the national gain of 8.7 percent, and in the unskilled group, placements increased 9.8 percent, compared with a 3.1 percent gain nationally. The semiskilled and clerical-sales groups registered small increases in placements from last May, but those in service and skilled categories declined.

Among major industry divisions, the relatively small transportation and public utilities group scored the largest percentage gain from a year earlier—22.5 percent. Durable goods manufacturing recorded a 20.9 percent gain from last year, slightly larger than the national increase in this industry. Government, trade, and nondurable goods manufacturing also showed gains. Placements in construction and services, however, declined over the year.

Over-the-year increases in job openings received (up 11.5 percent) and unfilled openings (up 62.8 percent) in the 56 major SMSA's exceeded the national pattern of gains.

In the 56 major areas, which accounted for nearly half the new job applications, there was a 2.2 percent drop from a year ago in the number of applicants, compared with a 1.8 percent decline nationally.

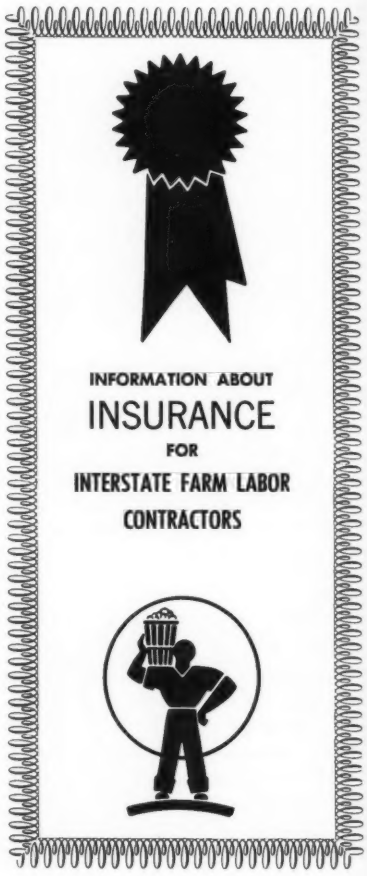
Counseling and testing activities increased more from May a year ago in the 56 SMSA's than nationally. Total counseling rose by 17.0 percent, initial counseling by 9.4 percent, and testing by a fractional 0.3 percent.

Youth Opportunity Center Operations

In May, 117,300 new applications were filed, 27,400 individuals were initially counseled, and 21,800 placements were made by the Youth Opportunity Centers. New applicants served by YOC's since the first reports were received in February 1965 through May 1966, totaled 848,600. Some 285,200, or 33.6 percent, of these applicants were given initial counseling interviews and 196,100 placements were made during this period.

Farm Placements

Farm placements in May, at 380,200, were down 13.4 percent from a year earlier. The downtrend apparent in recent years in both farm employment and job placements reflects the increased pace of mechanization and improved cultivation methods on the Nation's farms, as well as increasing urbanization. Some 86,700 of the May total represented placements of youth under age 22.



A Brighter Picture for Leake County, Miss.

The main street in Carthage, Miss.

PETER H. PATTRIDGE

Changes for the better are taking place in the economy of Leake County, Miss. Average covered employment in 1965 was 1,250, compared with only 880 in 1962. Total wages in 1965 were $3.6 million, compared with $2.2 million in 1962. The increase in population in the county during the last 3 years is reflected in the 12 percent rise in total county public school enrollment to 2,132 in 1964–65.

The change in the lives of the residents of this central Mississippi county began when the Employment Service Smaller Communities Program mobile team came to the county to conduct a manpower survey with the cooperation of the Leake County Rural Area Development Committee, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Board of Supervisors. The team was in the county from July through October 1962.

The Mississippi Employment Security Commission chose Leake County as a prime area to conduct a comprehensive resource study because of the economic conditions which prevailed in the county. In 1960, the median family income was $1,892, with two-thirds of the families earning less than $3,000.

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In contrast to the rich, flat delta land lying to the west, Leake County is made up mainly of badly eroded hills composed of sand and sandy clays. Up to 1940, approximately half of the county's population farmed small plots of land. However, soil erosion, Government control of cotton acreage, and increasing costs of labor drove out the small farmowners and tenant farmers and caused a consolidation of land into larger, more mechanized farms. Outmigration of displaced farmworkers, resulting from the shift in agriculture, brought about a decrease of 62 percent in the agricultural labor force from 1940 to 1960. Between 1950 and 1960, when the greatest population decline occurred, 6,334 people, or 25 percent of the actual population, migrated from the area.

After the Smaller Communities team survey, the bleak picture began to change.

Members of the Mississippi Employment Security Commission entered the county to gain support from the county leaders and to recruit six temporary interviewers. Before the temporary office was actually opened to the public, the interviewers were given 2 weeks of intensive training. The first week was devoted to instruction in application-taking, use of the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES, and occupational classification. During the second week, they learned to administer occupational tests and practiced application-taking and test administration.

The office that opened in Carthage on July 23, 1962, served as a base of operations for the entire county. On the basis of population and adequacy of facilities, other sites were selected throughout the county for application-taking and testing. The mobile team had an average of 33 applicants each day during the 45 workdays that the office was open. The team also tested 1,513 applicants.

The first result of the program was the stimulation of interest in community growth. The Leake County Industrial Development Corp. developed a site for an industrial park. Plans were drawn up to create a large-scale tourist attraction centered around a managed small game and bird hunting facility.

The first firm to move into the area following the mobile team survey was the Lemmon & Snoap Co. This small plant employs nine people in the manufacture of tungsten carbide-tipped saws, groovers, and special cutters.

The next plant to move into Carthage was Garan, Inc., manufacturers of sport shirts. This plant began temporary operations in downtown Carthage and employed 100 people selected on the basis of the

Garan, Inc., is one of the three new plants brought into Leake County following the team survey.

manpower information compiled by the mobile team. Soon the company built a permanent plant at the new industrial park and by 1965, 210 people were employed.

The Henderson Manufacturing Co. began operations in the Carthage industrial park in 1963. The plant manufactures mechanical and hydraulically operated, self-unloading bulk feed bodies and lime and fertilizer spreaders. The initial employment was 25 men, but a recently completed annex will employ 50 people in the near future.

In October 1965, the R & R Processors signed a contract with the Leake County Board of Supervisors to build a new poultry processing plant in the area at a cost of $750,000. The plant, scheduled to go into operation in the early summer of 1966, will initially process 3,000 birds per hour, with an employment of 150. At full capacity, the plant will process 9,600 birds per hour.

One of the important aspects of the service provided by the Smaller Communities Program team is the cooperative relationship the program fosters with other government agencies in order to assist a community. The results of this relationship can be observed in Leake County. Under the Accelerated Public Works Program, the county obtained 2 projects costing a little under $500,000 and providing 283 man-months of work. The town of Carthage received $106,000 in ARA grants for water facilities. The community matched the ARA grant and work was begun on the project in July 1964.

The Smaller Communities Program's mobile teams are at present operating in 16 States across the country, bringing employment services to remote rural areas. The benefits include a human resources survey to encourage economic development of each area, along with testing, counseling, training, and job referral for unemployed and underemployed local residents.

Lloyd B. was 30 years old when the Smaller Communities Program mobile team came to Leake County, Miss. He had finished a technical high school where he majored in drafting and machine tool operations, worked at various jobs, and served 2 years in the Army before he moved to Philadelphia, Miss., in 1954.

During the next 8 years, Lloyd found various part-time and temporary jobs in the area. He worked for an electrical and plumbing contractor for 3 years, as a farmer for 2 years, and operated a bus station cafe for a year.

When the mobile team came into the county, he quickly registered for help. This proved to be the turning point in his life. Because of his high scores on the *General Aptitude Test Battery* and his genuine interest in people, he was hired as an employment interviewer to work with the mobile team.

The team was instrumental in bringing three new industries into the area. One of them, Lemmon & Snoap, manufacturers of carbide-tipped saws, hired Lloyd as a result of a study showing his aptitudes and work training in this field. He is now manager of the company which employs seven highly skilled workers and a secretary. Company orders are rising and plans have been made to expand the plant and to employ 10 to 15 more skilled machinists.

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